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Low income African-American fourth-grade students' perception of academic achievement relative to student self-concept, parental support and teachers attitude

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ABSTRACT

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

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LOW INCOME AFRICAN-AMERICAN FOURTH-GRADE STUDENTS’ PERCEPTION OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT RELATIVE TO STUDENT SELF-CONCEPT, PARENTAL SUPPORT AND TEACHERS ATTITUDE

Advisor: Dr. Richard Lyle

Dissertation dated July 2007

This study examines low income fourth-grade students’ perception of academic achievement in relationship to student self-concept, parental support, and teacher attitudes.

The study was based on the fourth-grade failure syndrome. This syndrome is a withdrawal of interest by children of this age in school-related activities with resultant academic failure. Fourth-grade students were surveyed to determine if their perception of self-concept, parental support, and teacher attitudes were related to their academic achievement. The researcher found that when students had a positive perception of self-concept, parental support, and teacher attitudes, they obtained above average achievement. Data gathered during this research can be used to broaden the body of
knowledge among social workers, psychologists, counselors, and school administrators who are in a position to rectify the decline in the academic success of African-American students.

The conclusion drawn from these findings supports that the students’ perception of self-concept, parental support, teacher attitudes, and academic achievement are interrelated. Neither factor significantly outweighed the other; however, all factors contributed to the academic success of low income African-American students.
LOW INCOME AFRICAN-AMERICAN FOURTH-GRADE STUDENTS’
PERCEPTION OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT RELATIVE
TO STUDENT SELF-CONCEPT, PARENTAL SUPPORT
AND TEACHERS ATTITUDE

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF CLARK ATLANTA UNIVERSITY
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY

VALECIA DEE WARREN

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

ATLANTA, GEORGIA

JULY 2007
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Public schools are the largest social institutions in our nation, where during school hours; one fifth of the total American population consists of public school students Kindergarten (K) through 12. African-American, Hispanic and American Indian students constituted one-third of the total student population in the nation’s K-12 classrooms and will grow to two-thirds of the population in the next fifteen years (Resseger, 2002).

The United States leads the nation in modern educational advances, yet consistently ranks among the lowest among nations in academic achievement. While low student achievement overall is disturbing, there is also a significant and troubling achievement gap between white and Asian, and African-American and Latino students (US Department of Education, 2003).

As the education of students become more challenging, social workers will be asked to play a greater role in facilitating and coordinating the efforts of teachers, parents, and the academic community to improve academic achievement. Traditionally social workers have diligently looked for deficiencies as they sought to address pathological "important strengths in African-American students’ families and communities. Social workers must begin to focus on the strengths of these students’ support systems, which
have the potential to empower students, address more of their total needs and enhance their potential for academic success. Social workers must begin to identify and understand these support systems and they must begin with the assumption that many achievement problems of African-American students are rooted in a racist educational system, represented in poor policies and practices driven by stereotyping, poor teacher expectation, and dismal failure in schools. African-American children are at the mercy of a unified white majority that is often antagonistic and indifferent to their educational welfare. These academic failures eventuate along with the escalating needs for comprehensive social services (Williams, 2003).

An overwhelming majority of social workers fail to understand the “real” relationships affecting the African American subordinate group status in America and how this relationship affects the social services needed to positively impact the academic community. What social workers need to successfully impact the achievement of African-American students is knowledge about how students perceive those who have the greatest influence on their achievement (i.e., teachers, parents and themselves).

The percentage of minorities in the nation’s public schools is rapidly increasing. One in every three students is from a minority group with the two largest groups being African American and Hispanic. In urban areas, more than fifty percent of the students currently attending schools are members of minority groups, and that percentage will continue to grow (Cotton, 1991). Corcoran, Walker and White’s (1998) report indicated that seventy percent of African-American students and over fifty percent of all Hispanic students attend schools in the inner-city settings.
Often in America's big cities, racial and economic segregation coincide. The majority of American urban public schools are segregated by race and economic status. A school's poverty ratio is determined by federal guidelines regulating the requirements for free or reduced lunch. The higher the poverty ratio in these schools, the higher the level of academic failure (Kahlenberg, 2001). Today many urban schools are economically segregated to such a degree that over ninety percent of the children meet this qualification. Predominantly minority schools are much more likely to have a higher poverty ratio than predominantly white schools. Only one in twenty predominantly white schools are considered a poverty school compared to more than eighty percent of predominantly black and Latino schools. Children that are in ninety to one hundred percent African-American and/or Hispanic schools are fourteen times more likely to be in academically failing schools than schools that are ninety percent white (Kahlenberg, 2001).

When the public attempts to assess the performance of urban schools, it finds that achievement is invariably lower for students who are labeled poor and minority. The achievement gap is linked to income as well as race (Bamberg, 1994). This factor is quite significant in considering students' perceptions of their academic achievement. For example, when students feel that educational achievement has no relevancy, that education does not promote equal opportunity and that education is excusatory, their motivation to succeed or advance academically is progressively lowered and quality of life and career opportunities are significantly impaired (Slavin, 1989).
Most individuals view the major functions of education as a means to employment and a better standard of living. Education is a vehicle towards respectability and good citizenship. It is the ticket to social mobility and psychological well being (Slavin, 1989). Although most consider these the primary functions of education, the main function is to establish economic security and opportunities in a competitive world. The ability to complete the educational process however is based upon many factors, including social, psychological and cultural issues. Often times these factors combine to negatively impact people and the differences are most significant among African Americans (Slavin, 1989).

In the past, young people without basic literacy and mathematical skills could expect to enter the workforce as unskilled, low-paid employees. However, this menial type of employment opportunity has become less available. Today the United States economy has few jobs for workers who lack basic literary and mathematical skills. The practice of allowing large numbers of disadvantaged youths to leave school with minimal skills ensures a life of poverty and dependence, which threatens the well being of our nation (Slavin, 1989).

Perception is the basic process of cognition. It is the process through which people negotiate their contact with the environment. Perception is heavily influenced by one’s socialization and past experiences. How students perceive social, psychological and cultural aspects of their environment will significantly impact their educational advancement and success (Travers, 1982). In the pursuit of social and educational objectives the development and selection of service strategies should differ depending on
the perceptual field of the individual or group being served. Perceptual fields are culturally and ethnically specific. Providing ethnic and cultural specifics for treatment models and policies and identifying where in the educational process these issues are most useful are areas where social workers can be most useful.

Social workers must approach educators with information that allows differentiation and understanding of the commonalities and uniqueness of minority students. Social workers can succeed in clarifying issues and in finding solutions to improve the education of African-American students. However, this perspective means that social agencies and the educational communities must forge new relationships. These new relationships can build on some programs that are already in place, but need to be reassessed for additional uses. The primary goal is to find ways in which social agencies can improve psychosocial factors related to academic success. Several opportunities can be found in community-based social service programs.

The present study is limited to African-American students and considers tangentially the fourth-grade failure syndrome. This syndrome is a withdrawal of interest by children in this age group from school related activities with resultant academic failure (Understanding Where We’ve Been, 2006). Kunjufu (1997), who is noted for his expertise in African-American children, reported that a child’s excitement and propensity to learn is most evident in grades one through four and that it is during this period that attitudes, motivation, and perception of learning are molded. Kunjufu further stated that this period of development sets the stage for learning and academic success.
African-American male students begin school like so many other children, with unbridled enthusiasm and high motivation, eager to learn and looking forward to spending the day with teachers and peers. Between grades one and three, children comprehend many aspects of learning. Like sponges, they absorb knowledge and naturally enjoy challenges that each new learning experience brings. They are very energetic, therefore naturally enthusiastic. The students go to school for the first time with well-developed personality traits, characteristics, attitudes, perceptions, and predispositions towards learning and they maintain this temperament until fourth grade (Brown, 2006).

It is in the third grade that the African-American male’s positive early experiences in public school begin to sour. These negative experiences begin to have an effect on his level of academic achievement, which first becomes evident in fourth grade (Brown, 2006). In the fourth grade, the spark that once filled their eyes disappears and academic achievement becomes insignificant, especially for African-American males. This phenomenon is often referred to as the fourth-grade failure syndrome. Kunjufu found that something happens to African-American males in the fourth grade that diminishes their excitement and growth (Kunjufu, 1997).

There are many important developmental issues which must be addressed in the fourth-grade classroom. Fourth graders need to feel secure, confident, and comfortable with themselves. They must be able to negotiate, compromise, and mediate differences with their fellow students in acceptable ways. Additionally, they have to learn to exercise appropriate emotional control when dealing with other students, teachers and other
adults. Because these concerns are so vital to fourth-grade children, the fourth-grade classroom must incorporate ways of helping children develop the social skills necessary to cope with all these social-emotional issues (Fourth Grade Curriculum, 2005).

Fourth graders possess many distinctive and important cognitive skills. They have an irrepressible enthusiasm for learning. They are comfortable working independently or with others in small groups. They have the emotional maturity to take responsibility for learning independently. This is illustrated by their ability to do their best work, complete assignments on time, handle homework independently, and use their work time well. They are developing the ability to pursue projects on their own, gather and organize information, make inferences about the information they gather, and present their findings in a clear and cohesive way. Fourth graders are also expected to handle transition from one subject to another without losing concentration. Fourth graders need classroom structure, which will help them develop a sense of personal and social responsibility, refine their social skills, polish their work habits, and support their innate thirst for knowledge (Fourth Grade Curriculum, 2005).

Barker (1991, 1999) reported that African-American males, young boys in particular, tend to be energetic, expressive, excitable and easily stimulated by their environment. African-American males, like their white counterparts, have sufficient self-esteem and motivation to excel, both inside and outside the classroom, but the socialization patterns and sociological differences may lead to alienation, separation, and differences in the way teachers respond to students within the classroom.
Barker (1992) goes on to say that the differences in socialization pattern often result in misunderstandings and the feeling of isolation. African-American males are more action-oriented and verbally assertive than white males. These distinctions create tension and separation between the races and often abrogate African-American males of their character, dignity, and self-worth, leaving them as causalities of the socialization process.

In a public school system, cross-cultural differences exist between African-American students and white teachers. By third grade, these differences have hardened into cross-cultural conflicts. This is illustrated by contrasting African American and white interpretations of, and responses to, common student misbehavior (Brown, 2006). This naturally active behavior of African-American students, however, is often labeled as hyperactive and resistant and often leads teachers to prematurely label these youth as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), learning disabled, or as having some neurological or psychiatric problem, all of which consequently inhibits one’s ability to learn. The teacher may isolate, label, ignore, or negatively reprimand them for their inability to keep up. This is often compounded by the absence of parental support and encouragement, as well as active and positive role models, especially African-American males (Barker, 1992).

It is estimated that 2 million children nationwide have ADHD, one of the most common mental health diagnoses among children today. The problem is an educational system that expects children to stay still for forty-five minutes at a time and comply rather than challenge. Kunjufu stated that African-American boys need to be at the front
of the class where they can focus, lesson plans that embrace their culture as well as needed movement and physical activity (Stone, 2005).

Kunjufu stated that public schools significantly contribute to the destruction of African-American males. He notes that the impact of integration has allowed African-American children to go through twelve years of schooling without experiencing an African-American male teacher. In 2004, there was a large gap between male and female teachers. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), of the 6.2 million teachers, approximately seventy-one percent were women and twenty-nine percent were men. Of all teachers, only eight percent were black (Anderson, 2006). The paucity of African-American teachers hampers the normal development of African-American males. Kunjufu stated that the lack of positive male role models may even limit their ability to excel personally and academically (Anderson, 2006).

These children, no matter how intelligent, spend their school days in the principal’s office, in detention, in corners, suspended, and oftentimes in special classrooms that usually target slow learners. Their promotion to the next grade comes without the adequate skills necessary for advancement (Kunjufu, 1997).

Because these children have not been properly prepared, they often remain unable to keep the pace with “regular” classes and consequently lag behind. There experiences lead them to believe that they are inadequate, and cannot learn. Cognitive ability becomes secondary and the perception of the teacher’s response and parental support completes the predictable formula for academic failure (Kunjufu, 1997).
Kunjufu stated that feelings of inadequacy are further internalized by the lack of African-American male teachers as role models in public schools. African-American males see few images of themselves in the academic arena and fewer in accessible careers, so they begin to devalue academic achievement as not important to their survival and success (Kunjufu, 1997).

Although the current study is not an exclusive study of the African-American male student, it is important to understand the circumstances faced by African-American male students who skew qualitative and quantitative results in urban public schools. Clearly, one cannot consider the school experiences of African-American children without the consideration of gender. Both African-American males and females are at risk in the education arena, and both experience discrimination and isolation with one common outcome: poor academic achievement.

The internalized, academically reinforced feelings of inadequacy, along with continued academic failure, result in negative self-concepts. In recent years educators have focused on self-concept and its relationship to learning and human interaction. Psychologists and Social Scientists have noted a strong relationship between a positive self-concept, good academic grades, positive attitudes, acceptable school behavior, and overall school performance (Gill, 1991).

The origins of self-concept can be traced to ancient Africa. Egyptians believed self-knowledge was the basis of all true knowledge and the mastery of the passions that allow an individual to search within himself. Consequently, ‘Man know thyself’ was
inscribed on their Temples. The Greek philosopher Socrates, who western cultures consider to be the father of self-concept, adopted many of those doctrines (Gill, 1991).

A more recent, yet historical theory about self-concept is derived from William James’ writing in the late 1800’s. He believed that the self consisted of spiritual, material, and social aspects. Later, other investigators proposed that self-concept was bipolar and also serves as a point of reference for significant others, thereby giving equal weight to both self and others. Therefore, it is well established that the self-concept is primarily social in nature, and that the attitude of significant others seriously affects the conception and perception of who we are or the self (James, 1890).

The significant role self-concept plays in the educational process has been cited since the early 1950s. Numerous studies have concluded that self-concept influences achievement in school and assumes an important role in the educational process (Gill, 1991). The self-concept involves beliefs and knowledge about the self. Our self-concept organizes and manages information about how we see ourselves, and is a component of our self-schema. A self-schema is a cognitive representation of the self. It organizes how we process information about the self and others. A question one may ask relevant to self-concept is, “Can I accomplish a particular task?” (Belgrave & Allison, 2006).

In contrast, self-esteem is one’s affective reaction toward and feeling about oneself that is also evaluative. The question, “Do I like myself?” is a question relevant to self-esteem (Belgrave & Allison, 2006).

The ideal self is what a person wants to be and is developed as an extension of thoughts, feelings, cultural and/or ethnic morals and values, and relationships with
significant others. This "ideal self" is then verified or rejected through interactions with significant others (Gill, 1991). Parents and teachers are significant others in the lives of students, and have a direct effect on the students' self-concept. Parents' involvement in the education of their children improves their children's academic achievement. Parents are expected to be role models for their children at home, taking the role of parent-educator seriously. This is central to the learning and achievement of the child and parallels the relationship between a teacher and a student (Gill, 1991).

In addition to parental support, the other factor under consideration is teacher influence. Because of the amount of time spent in school and because the time should equal advancement, teachers have a powerful impact upon students' lives. Teachers are automatically one of the significant others in students' lives who not only impact the present and future self-concept of students, but also the training and readiness for a social and economic opportunities (Irvine, 1990). Irvine (1990) said that students identify teachers as significant others in their lives, consequently, how a child feels about himself or herself is to a large extent determined by the child's perceptions of how the teacher feels about him/her. Beginning at age six, a child will probably spend more consecutive hours with a teacher than with one or both parents.

Because of the presumed connection between teacher attitude, parental support, self-concept and students' academic achievement, the current study examines the students' perceptions of this relationship by evaluating what influences, if any, does teacher attitude, parental support, and self-concept have upon academic achievement. This research will use the students' actual academic achievement record (report card) to
determine if students who report strong and supportive relationships with teachers and parents have a greater academic achievement that those who do not.

Statement of the Problem

All educational indicators across the country show that the majority of African-American children are not fairing well in most of the nation’s public schools. African-American males, in particular, are over represented in special education classes, educable mentally retarded classes, behavior disorders classes, and emotionally handicapped or special reader classes. Teachers’ expectation of students is considered a major or primary factor in the academic achievement of African-American males, especially African-American males in the fourth grade. As they move through elementary school, African-American boys face their teacher’s low expectations, and few to their classes are designed to engage them (Irvine, 1991).

In the wake of modern technologies and in spite of legislation that has been written to guarantee equal access to the educational process, the African-American child continues to fail in our public schools. If education continues to be the key to successful African-American students, then their future is indeed unpromising. All educational indicators across the country show that the majority of African-American children are not fairing well in most of the nation’s public schools (Williams, 1996).

African-American males are the most adversely affected. Research has shown that when black male students are compared to other students by gender and race they consistently rank lowest in academic achievement (A Black Males Strength, 2004).
Kunjufu stated that for a teacher, African American, white, male or female, the ideal child is the one that is quiet and can sit still for long periods of time working independently on ditto sheets. If you have two boys that are fighting, pushing, hollering, screaming and demanding your attention, it’s human nature to want to rid yourself of these two boys. Teachers simply do not allow for gender and cultural differences and so the child that has the greatest energy likely is going to be African-American or Hispanic male. These youth are going to have the shortest attention span, the greatest energy and less maturation (Anderson, 2005).

Currently African-American males are referred to as an “endangered species.” Compared to other gender-race groups, African-American males have the highest dropout, suspension, and expulsion rates, the highest rate of infant mortality and the shortest life expectancy. Furthermore, they are more likely to be unemployed, underemployed, and incarcerated. Kunjufu stated, African-American males are probably the most feared and the least likely to have their needs met within the educational system and therefore, the least likely to succeed academically (Brown, 2006).

Research has shown that this record of poor performances by African-American male students during their elementary and secondary school years limits their involvement in education at the college level and correlates strongly with their disproportionately large numbers in the country’s jails and penitentiaries. Adult African-American males lead the nation in being undereducated, unemployed, and incarcerated. African-American males are also characterized as having more health problems and dying at a younger age than any other group in America (Brown 2006).
Since African-American children appear to be failing, every effort needs to be made to help them become productive and achieving members of the academic community. Children in poor communities are generally recipients of a variety of social services, therefore social workers should look for opportunities to enhance social factors related to achievement by designing intervention strategies for parents, teachers, and students. These intervention strategies will help to improve students’ self-concept, teacher attitude and behavior, and help parents to understand their role in the academic success of their children.

Although considerable research exist on academic achievement and African-American males in the fourth grade, very little research was found on the academic achievement of African-American females in the fourth grade. The current study looks at both gender groups and is intended to examine fourth-grade students’ perception of academic achievement as it relates to student self-concept, teacher attitudes, and parental support within the Atlanta Public Schools and Clayton County Public Schools.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the fourth-grade students’ perceptions of self-concept, teacher attitude, and parental support on their academic achievement. The study was designed to explain whether or not a significant relationship exists between students’ perception of teacher attitude, parental support, self-concept, and academic achievement. The participants of the study were fourth-grade students in Atlanta Public Schools and Clayton County Schools.
Research Questions

The research questions of this study were as follows:

1. Is there a relationship between students' perception of teacher attitude and academic achievement?
2. Is there a relationship between students' perception of parental support and academic achievement?
3. Is there a relationship between students' perception of self and academic achievement?

Hypotheses

The null hypotheses for this study are as follows:

1. There is no statistically significant relationship between students' perception of teacher attitude and the students' academic achievement.
2. There is no statistically significant relationship between students' perception of parental support and the students' academic achievement.
3. There is no statistically significant relationship between students' perception of self and the students' academic achievement.

Three independent variables were selected for this study. The independent variables are teacher attitude, parental support, and self-concept. Academic Achievement is the dependent variable of the study. Academic Achievement is defined as the mastery of designated, standardized skills per grade level. It is believed that academic achievement is contingent upon students' perception of those closest to him (his parent
and his teacher) and how the student feels about himself. Academic achievement has been addressed in the literature as it related to other variables; however, the literature has very little related to students perceptions of academic achievement. Also, very little in the literature addresses these variables and elementary school students.

This research therefore seeks to broaden the body of knowledge among social workers, psychologists, counselors, and school administrators by arming them with the facts that can level the educational playing field that is tilted dramatically in favor of white, middle-class student (Brown, 2004).

Significance of the Study

In the literature review of this study, research on African-American children show those important factors in academic success are: how the child perceives his teachers’ feelings toward him, his parent’s support of him, and his own feelings towards his school achievement (Irvine, 1990). The current research adds to that body of literature. The intent of this study is to further understand how children’s perception of their teachers’ feelings, parents’ feelings, and their own feelings relate to their academic achievement. This research provides teachers and administrators insight into the significance of how parent and teacher behavior may be internalized and perceived by students (Irvine, 1990).

This research may help teachers and parents move more effectively towards self-examination and develop an understanding of how their personal expectations, values, and beliefs affect student behavior, specifically achievement in the classroom. The results of this study should encourage teachers and parents to increase their capacity to adopt
behaviors conducive to motivation and encourage students to succeed academically, rather than to abrogate their character, dignity, and self-worth.

This research may also be important to social workers and educational consultants, educators and policy makers who work with schools and are in a position to rectify the decline in academic success of African-American students. Individuals in these positions can offer stronger support and monitoring systems for children (Williams, 2003). Supportive policies should be developed to establish high standards and improved student achievement and success. These policies should embrace professional development designed to increase teacher expectation, competence, and accountability. Consequently, the outcomes that measure and monitor the academic achievement of African-American children can become sources of pride for the school system and the community.

Finally, the current research reinforces the importance of academic excellence as it relates to supplying the workers of tomorrow with the skills necessary to fulfill diverse technical and professional roles which are necessary to keep this country competitive and alive in an ever growing complex global economy. Simply put, high achieving students empower America.

This dissertation is divided into five chapters. Chapter one consists of introduction to the research. Chapter two consists of the review of the literature related to student perception, teacher attitude, parental support and academic achievement of fourth-grade students. Also included in Chapter two, is a discussion of an applicable theoretical framework. Chapter three presents the methodology of the study. Chapter four is a
presentation of the findings. Lastly, Chapter five presents the conclusion and implication of the study.

Definitions

The following are a list of terms for the study:

Self-Concept – the perception that each person has about himself, formed from experiences and relationships with the environment, where significant people play an important role.

Parental Support – the demonstration of encouragement, interest, and parental involvement in their child’s classroom work.

Teacher Attitude – the system of expectations, beliefs, and values that mediate a teacher’s interaction with students.

African American- individuals of African decent who are born and living in America.

Perception - the state of awareness of oneself; the consciousness of oneself; how one senses, sees, thinks about and experiences the world.

Academic Achievement – the mastery of designated standardized skills per grade level.

Public Schools – an institution of learning that offers a free education to children ages 5-18 in grades K-12.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of presenting this review of the literature is to lay a scholarly foundation in order to establish a need for the study. This chapter is a review of the current literature on the perception of academic achievement of fourth-grade students. The review covers an overview of fourth-grade students, academic failure, perception, student self-concept, parental support, and teacher attitude.

Overview of Fourth-Grade Students

All children have a unique developmental history that is influenced by a number of factors. One commonly identified set of developmental milestones for fourth graders is a pattern of shifts in their perception and reasoning identified by Jean Piaget. In Piaget’s “Stages of Operation,” children begin to perceive the material world in a different way. Despite some controversies about Piaget’s theories, it is clear that there are significant shifts from how a very young child perceives the world and relates to it, and how an older child observes and responds to the same events and information (Piaget, 1929).

The expectations of progress from grade to grade can perhaps best be described in terms of developmental expectations. These expectations fall into three main phases: the preoperational phase, the concrete operational phase and the formal operations phase.
The second phase, what Piaget called the concrete operation period, takes place typically during grades two through five, or from about six or seven years of age to about eleven or twelve. Gradually, during this period, the child makes a transition to a more sophisticated understanding of the world.

Children began to understand some important physical notions about the laws of the universe such as reversibility and transferability. “A liquid can be poured into a thin tall container and then poured into a shorter, wider container and realize it is still the same amount of liquid, or that adding two to four makes six, so taking two from six makes four” (Piaget 1932).

One very clear indicator of this cognitive transition is an increasing sense of humor in the child, particularly humor related to reversibility and transferability. From learning to read, children now start reading to learn. They began to understand how information is systematically organized. They may be haphazard about how to organize their own learning, but they expect information to be stored and presented in an organized, methodical way. “They became independent readers, often identifying with a particular author or set of characters. They could tell the differences between fiction and nonfiction” (Piaget, 1969).

During the concrete operational period children also began learning to understand and respect other people perspectives. They acquired a sense of justice in social rules. They started becoming clearer (even upset, on occasion) about what’s fair and not fair. They valued structure and organization. They began to acquire writing skills for different purposes. They wrote in the third person as well as the first person. They explored
different literary genres (Piaget, 1970). They transferred mathematical knowledge about objects (manipulative) to more generalized patterns. They learned number facts and solve mathematical and scientific problems using symbolic mathematical language.

The focus of this study was fourth graders and although every child is unique, there are some common social and developmental characteristics generally shared by nine to ten-year olds who are traditional fourth-grade students (King, 1999). Fourth graders are eager to join peer groups for play, and learn well in these groups. At this age, children are still most comfortable in gender-departed groups, and feel it is important to follow the group's expectations, no matter what the consequences. Children in this age group strongly dislike being embarrassed in front of people and sharing is easier now (Bolenbaugh, 2004).

Fourth graders continue to exhibit concrete rather than abstract thinking. They learn through what they see, hear, taste and touch. They enjoy activity and are very active. They can concentrate for longer periods and need to function in an orderly world. They want things to happen in a predictable pattern (Bolenbaugh, 2004). Fourth graders can observe people and situations and form conclusions about them. They are interested in living things, how they are made and how they work. Fourth graders are still at the hero-worshiping stage, and continue to respond well to, and want to imitate role models. Although they are still sensitive to praise and criticism, they are beginning to realize the necessity for constructive criticism (Bolenbaugh, 2004).

The fourth grader realizes the need for guidelines and behavioral boundaries. Fourth graders want to live by the rules and they want others to live by them also. They
are beginning to acknowledge the importance to being fair and recognizing another person’s point of view. They are able to understand both cause and effect of his or her actions and the consequences of good and bad choices (Bolenbaugh, 2004).

Fourth graders are just at the threshold of a very organizational stage and they organize skills and concepts into an order that they understand. They continue to grow into independent beings illustrated by the need for increasing independence from the family. Yet, they recognize the importance of belonging and stability (Bolenbaugh, 2004). Fourth graders begin to want privacy at times, and will sometimes become secretive in order to achieve privacy. Occasionally, they may experience jealousy of brothers or sisters. They have clearly developed a sense of humor, which sometimes manifests itself in teasing and/or mocking others (Bolenbaugh, 2004). Fourth graders also enjoy playing sports that have moderately complicated rules. Hand-to-eye coordination, as well as other fine motor skills are fairly well developed and continue to develop (Bolenbaugh, 2004).

Academic Failure

Reasons for academic failure are explained by a variety of experts. For example, educational theorists attempting to explain minority success and failure in school during the 1980’s and 1990’s point to what Deyhle called “Cultural Difference and Socio-structural Theories.” Deyhle labeled James Cummins a cultural difference theorist because of his work and body of ideas on empowering minority students (Deyhle, 1995).
Cummins (1986) suggested that minority failure and failures housed in school reform have not significantly altered the relationship between educators and minority youths or between schools and minority communities. Cummins' central tenet was that students from lower socioeconomic groups are empowered or disabled as a direct result of their interactions with educators in schools. His recommendations required educators to change their relationships with minority students to promote empowerment of students' success in schools (Cummins, 1986).

John Ogbu (1989), a socio-structural theorist, differentiated between voluntary and involuntary groups. Voluntary groups were those whose members had moved to America by choice, believing this led to greater political and social freedom, economic well-being and overall opportunities. They did better in schools with a disproportionately large number (in relation to the general population) excelling. Involuntary groups were those whose members were brought here through slavery, conquest, or colonization. This group had a disproportionately large number (in relation to the general population) who did not fare well socially, politically, economically, or academically. Ogbu attributed the success of voluntary groups to the fact that they possessed a positive dual frame of reference that they used to interpret the economic, political, and social barriers against them as more or less a temporary problem, and as problems that they would overcome.

Involuntary minorities interpreted the same obstacles differently and with a much more negative frame of reference. Ogbu (1987), suggested that because they did not have a homeland situation to compare with the situation in the United States, they did not interpret their menial jobs as better or temporary. For involuntary minorities
discrimination was permanent and institutionalized which forced them to perceive permanence in the barriers that define their lives and hopelessness. On the other hand, voluntary group members were model students, where educators had bought into the stereotypes that resulted in demonstrated high expectations. It can also be assumed that the achieving students were the recipients of strong parental support, even though some of the parents spoke poor English and were therefore, unable to help with homework or fully understand the scope and depth of curriculum objectives.

In his text, *An American Imperative*, Miller (1995), built a theoretical argument for the social construction of minority student failure. According to Miller, the lack of specific parental and community resources, which he defined as human capital, social capital, health capital, financial capital and political capital, aggravates the urban school’s non-performance reality. Community resources functioned as interdependent, complementing coordinated systems that delivered a sense of security and perpetuated the status quo and well being in successful life-styles and their quality of life.

Human capital is the knowledge and skills required to function in a technologically complex society, like the United States, in the twenty-first century. Social capital includes the norms, the social networks, and the relationships between adults and children that are of value for the child’s growth (Colman, 1990). Health capital is the ability to sustain good health through nutrition and preventative care. Financial capital is the income and savings that provide the ability to purchase other resources and advantages. And political capital refers to the benefits that the community at large provides for all its members. Political capital acknowledges the interdependent nature of
society today. Of course, minority groups have much fewer community resources to produce the desired objectives. It seemed reasonable to conclude that this included the academic arena (Colman, 1990).

Minority members did not command the comprehensive array of community resources and the resources were not woven in complementary, interdependent, well-coordinated delivery systems. Functioning independently, each of the community resources is free to consistently present statistics confirming systems that perpetuate failure and hopelessness. Nowhere is this more apparent than in the educational programs that serve minority communities (Colman, 1990).

Perception

Perception is the basic process of cognition as it is the process through which living organisms maintain contact with the environment (Travers, 1982). J.J. Gibson (1950) pointed out that individuals are taught to see the world. This process of seeing involved not only the sensation and reception of the sensory stimuli but also involved an analytical process. Most research suggested that perception is heavily influenced by one’s socialization and past experiences. There is reason to believe that the perceptions of African Americans differ in style from other groups (Jones, 2004).

Ochse (2001) said that factors such as self-perceptions and high expectations had a significant impact on motivation and achievement. He reviewed theories that suggested that success or failure is not solely determined by actual ability or lack of ability, but rather by our perceptions of our ability (whether accurate or inaccurate), and our
expectations. These factors influenced both our motivation and our persistence. Indeed, unsuccessful students may be handicapping themselves by believing they had little ability and, therefore, expecting failure. It follows then that these students are likely to be hesitant and unsure of themselves, which in turn, will undermine their accomplishments. They are likely to reduce their efforts or give up completely when they encounter problems.

As Graham (1989) suggested, far too many minority children perform poorly in school not because they lack basic intellectual capacities or specific learning skills, but because they have low expectations and feel hopeless. The implication of all of these theories is that we can improve poor students’ performance by helping them to gain more positive self-perceptions, higher expectations, and firmly rooted confidence.

Self-Concept

Self-image is an individual’s self-concept. The social self-image is very often the self-image of the home, the playground, the streets, the basketball court, the football field, etc. The social self-image also can be described in relation to others who are a part of the same social environment. The social self-image determines most often how individuals feel about their interactions with others. It is reflected in how individuals carried themselves, how they spoke, how they adorned themselves, how they reacted in social setting, and how they developed social skills (Improving Black Student Achievement, 2001).
Self-image is both a belief in self and respect for self. In children, self-image is formed largely by how they thought significant adults in their lives perceived them. The child’s self-concept arose and developed in an interpersonal setting (Sullivan, 1974). It has been argued by psychologists and sociologists that the self arises through the individual’s interaction with and reaction to other members of society his/her peers, parents, and teachers. Feelings about the self were established early in life and were modified by subsequent experiences. Among the significant people believed to affect the child’s feelings about himself are first, his parents and later his teachers (Davidson & Lang, 1960).

Individuals need a high self-image to cope effectively with the demands of life. Embedded in each child’s self-image is our hope for the future (Gilmore, 1982). Studies in Head Start show efforts to improve self-image led to improved achievement. People behaved in a manner which was consistent with the way they view themselves (Lazar and Darlington, 1978). Festinger (1962) said the ways we react to people tasks, etc. are those, which seem to us most consistent with our self-image.

Praise and acceptance strengthen self-image, while criticism and disproval lower it. Although older children and teenagers base their self-image primarily on perceptions of their peers, they often did so because peer groups substitute for a perceived lack of adult affection. Students who felt good about themselves or who score high on self-esteem were also the highest achievers Thus the development of a child’s self-image is perhaps the most important barometer of future success (Improving African American Students Achievement, 2001).
As powerful as the social self-image is, it alone does not indicate the likelihood for future success in a high-tech society. Nor does it determine the extent to which a child is likely to be motivated to achieve success in mainstream America. It is the academic self-image that dictated how well children fared in a society where survival will require higher-order thinking skills and other academic competencies. It is not unusual for some children to display a positive social self-image within their own families and communities and a negative academic self-image (Improving Black Student Achievement, 2001).

The key ingredient for improving the academic self-image of children was accomplishment. An academic environment that offered encouragement, praise and the opportunity for accomplishment promoted the development of a positive self-image. Children who were without opportunities for in-school success were likely to feel frustrated and inept. However, since the need for accomplishment (of any kind) was so great, many students who were denied in-school success would seek accomplishment outside of school, even if it is through illegal or unacceptable behavior (Improving Black Student Achievement, 2001).

Self-concept is the individual’s way of looking at himself. It also signifies his way of thinking, feeling, and behaving. The different dimensions of the self-concept are:

Physical: individual’s view of their body, health, physical appearance and strength;
Social: individual’s sense of worth in social situations; Temperamental: individual’s view of their prevailing emotional state or predominance of a particular kind of emotional reaction; Educational: individual’s view of themselves in relation to school, teachers and
extra curricular activities; Moral: individual’s estimation of their moral worth in right and wrong activities; and Intellectual: individual’s awareness of their intelligence and capacity of problem solving and judgments (Vamadevappa, 2003).

Self-concept was generally asserted to be a product of all the beliefs and evaluations one has about oneself and includes one’s behavioral tendencies. It had often been described as having two main components: a descriptive element and an evaluative element (Hattie 1992). The descriptive component was that which is concerned with one’s belief about oneself and is often referred to as self-image. It was a cognitive appraisal, which may be objective or subjective, true or false. Self-image can range from belief statements such as I am tall; I am generous; or I am Australian; to I am an accountant. They were generalized descriptions reflecting the consistent and habitual way we had come to perceive ourselves (Burns, 1982).

However, these descriptions are colored by the personal interpretations (or evaluations) through which we read them. For example, someone may hold the belief that I am fat, yet be only ten kilograms underweight, compared to the recommended weight for his/her size. This notion was incorrectly based on a subjective evaluation that I am not as skinny as I should be or I am not as skinny as her/him. It was the evaluative component (sometimes referred to as self-esteem), which takes the belief from objective to subjective (Burns, 1982).

It is important to note that beliefs may be incorrect (and be known to be so), yet still be a part of one’s self-concept. The important factor is not the truth of one’s belief, but one’s awareness of it (Hattie, 1992). Carl Rogers (1951) viewed the self as a
differentiated portion of the phenomenal field, consisting of a pattern of conscious perceptions and values of the I or me. He spelled out some of the properties of self: a) a self develops out of the organism interaction with the environment; b) it may interject the values of other people and perceive them in a distorted fashion; c) it strives for consistency; d) the organism behaves in ways that are consistent with self; e) experiences that were not consistent with the self-structure were perceived as threats; f) the self may change as a result of maturation and learning.

Huitt (1998) stated that there were a variety of ways to think about the self however; the two most widely used terms are self-concept and self-esteem. Self-concept generally referred to the totality of a complex organized and dynamic system of learned beliefs, attitudes and opinion that each person held to be true about his or her personal existence. Self-esteem is generally referred to how we feel about or how we valued ourselves. Self-concept also refers to the general idea we have of ourselves and self-esteem can refer to particular measures about components of self-concept. Some authors even use the two terms interchangeably. The domains of the self-concepts were developed at each period of a life span. Self-esteem develops from relations with others and from life experiences. It doesn’t always stay the same. It is an ongoing evaluation of oneself. It can be learned. It doesn’t happen overnight (Purkey, 1988).

Franken (1994) stated that there is a great deal of research which shows that self-concept is perhaps, the basis for all motivated behavior. It is the self-concept that gives rise to possible selves and it is the possible self that creates the motivation for behavior. Self-concept is related to self-esteem in that people who have good self-esteem have a
clearly differentiated self-concept. When people know themselves they can maximize outcomes because they know what they can and cannot do.

The self-esteem is the evaluative component of the self-concept. It is a function of the distance between the ideal self and the perceived self. When the perceived self matches the ideal self, self-esteem is relatively high. Low self-esteem occurs when the perceived self is significantly lower than the ideal self. Since the distance between the ideal and perceived self constantly varies depending on task and social feedback, self-esteem is a dynamic component of the self-concept and it is always in a state of change and development (Leonard, Beauavais, & School, 1995).

Most models and descriptions of the self involve elements of self-perceptions; however most are unclear as to what perspectives of the self the individual holds. James (1980) saw the self as consisting of whatever the individual views as belonging to him or her, which included a material, a social and spiritual self. The perceptions of the material or the material self are those of one’s own body, family, and possessions. The social self includes the views others have of the individual, and the spiritual self includes perceptions of one’s emotions and desires (James, 1890).

Kihlstrom, Cantor and their associates suggested that individuals hold perceptions of themselves in terms of traits and values, their attributes, experiences, thoughts and actions, and their physical appearance, demographic attributes and dispositions of various sorts (Kihlstrom, Cantor, Albright, Chew, Klien & Niedenthal 1988).

The content of the self-concept consist of perceptions of social and personal identities, traits, attributes and possessions. In a study, that included over 200 fourth and
fifth-grade boys and girls, children who had self-perceptions of academic competence preferred more intellectually challenging subjects than did those with lower self-perceptions (Boggiano, Main, & Katz, 1988).

While the perceived self described the set of perceptions individuals held of their actual traits, competencies, and values, the ideal self represented the set of traits, competencies and values an individual would like to possess. By possess we mean that the individual desired to believe that he/she actually had a particular trait, competency, or value, or wants others to believe that the individual had the trait, competency, or value. This view of ideal self is similar to Schlenker’s (1985) “idealized image” (i.e., the ultimate person one would like to be).

According to Huitt (1998) there were several different components of self-concept: physical, academic, social and transpersonal. The physical aspect of self-concept relates to that which is concrete: what we look like, our height weight, etc.; what kind of clothes we wear; what kind of car we drive; what kind of home we live in; and so forth. Our academic self-concept related to how well we did in school or how well we learn. There are two levels; a general academic self-concept of how good we are overall and a set of specific content-related self-concepts that described how good we were in math, science, language arts, social science etc. The social self-concept described how we related to the people and the transpersonal self-concept described how we relate to the supernatural or unknown.

Marsh (1992) demonstrated that the relationship of self-concept to school achievement is very specific. General self-concept and non-academic aspects of self-
concept were not related to academic work; general academic achievement measures were related moderately to academic success. Specific measures of subject-related self-concept were highly related to success in that content area.

Hamachek (1995) asserted that self-concept and school achievement were related. The major issue is the direction of the relationship: does self-concept produce achievement or does achievement produce self-concept.

Gage and Berlliner (1992) stated that the evidence is accumulation to indicate that the level of school success, particularly over many years, predicted level of regard of self and one's own ability, whereas level of self-esteem did not predict level or school achievement. The implication is that teachers need to concentrate on the academic successes and failures of their students. It is the student's history of success and failure that gave them the information with which to assess themselves."

Many criticized the encouragement of self-esteem as an academic goal (Baumeister, 1996; Lener, 1996). Such critiques were concerned that when self-esteem promotion is pursued in terms of making students “feel good” about themselves, this misapplication could lead to indiscriminate praise and the assumption that one should protect his or her students from failure. These theorists suggested that students who felt good and are satisfied with their work did not necessary achieve or develop habits that led to success.

These criticisms were justified. There is little evidence that students who were indiscriminately praised and protected from failure did in fact develop genuine self-esteem (Shindler, 2002).
If academic achievement leads to self-concept/self-esteem, but self-concept is a better predictor of being a low-track or high track student, it would appear there are some intervening variable. The intervening variable is personal expectations. His formula was: Self-esteem = Success/ Pretensions. That is, increasing self-esteem resulted when success is improving relative to expectations. An interesting corollary to this equation is that success is limited by expectations and self-esteem: Success = Pretension/ Self-esteem. This equation stated that success, especially the limits of one's success, can be improved by increasing expectations and or self-esteem (James, 1980).

The research on the relationship between self-esteem/self-concept and school achievement suggested that measures of general or even academic self-concept were not significantly related to school achievement. It is at the level of very specific subjects (e.g., reading, mathematic, science) that there was a relationship between self-concept/self-esteem and academic success. Given the above formulas, this suggested that success in a particular subject area is not really changing one's self-concept (knowledge of one's self) or even self-esteem (one's subjective evaluation of one's value or worth but rather was impacting one's expectation about future success based on one's past experience (Huitt 1998).

According to Weissbourd (1995), there is little reason to believe self-esteem led to academic achievement, or even that self-esteem was necessary for academic success. It was therefore crucial to delegitimize the equations establishment's mindless glorification of self-esteem. School gripped by self-esteem theory were, in essence producing a
generation of poorly educated adults who will lacked the habits of hard work and perseverance that had historically been necessary to achieving true success.

Self-esteem in children had no special impact on success in school, despite an educational emphasis on the link between the two. Numerous previous studies had directly linked self-esteem and achievement and had led to the introduction of programs and strategies to promote healthy self-esteem in students. These studies did not however, take into account related variables such as family roles and children’s characteristics. The most powerful factors for prediction of academic success were intellectual effectiveness and academic effort, he said. When the child and family variables were examined in combination, the significant direct relationship between self-esteem and achievement disappeared. The study also found that children who received the most help from parents with schoolwork got the poorest grades, even when intellectual effectiveness and academic effort were taken into account (Boyd, 2004).

Also at the heart of an educational controversy was which comes first, achievement or self-esteem? Traditionally, public schools had thought the students’ satisfaction will follow on the heels of their academic success. In other words, children who performed well in class would consequently feel good about themselves. But more recent educational theories have reversed that logic. (They said that students must secure high self-esteem before they could hope to achieve). In other words, they must feel good about themselves before they could perform well in class (Shokaii, 2003).

As children moved through their early elementary school years, their perceptions of ability, which tend to be somewhat inflated to begin with, became more realistic and
accurate. Their longitudinal investigation of relationships among general self-esteem, academic self-concept, and school achievement, children’s clearer understanding of relationships between ability and academic achievement caused them to be more sensitive to performance feedback, which had the effect of making their self-perceptions of ability more accurate. Once these ability perceptions were more firmly established, the relationship between self-concept and school achievement became more reciprocal. Thus, high self-concept students tended to approach school-related tasks with confidence, and success on those tasks reinforced this confidence (Skaalvik & Hagtvet, 1990).

Self-esteem made its first dramatic impact upon American schools in 1954, when the Supreme Court accepted that school segregation damaged the self-esteem of African-American children in its Brown v. Board of Education ruling. Low self-esteem, the Court said, affected the motivation of a child to learn, and has a tendency to retard children’s educational and mental development. According to Barbara Lerner, this proposition made three questionable assumptions about African Americans: (1) Low self-esteem is the major cause of low academic achievement; (2) African Americans have a lower self-esteem than whites; and (3) Changing white attitudes toward African Americans will raise African American self-esteem. Taken together, these faulty notions provide the reasoning behind the current repudiation of high standards and expectations in our public schools (Bellgrave & Allison, 2006).

In reality, African-American children at the same grade level and in the same school system as white children display a higher sense of self-esteem. African-Americans usually report slightly higher levels of agreement with statements about taking
a positive attitude toward oneself, judging oneself to be a person ‘of worth,’ and being generally satisfied with oneself (Bellgrave & Allison, 2006).

Every day in the name of self-esteem, however, schools cheat low-income children (many of whom are African-American) into settling for inflated egos instead of increased knowledge. Such efforts aimed at guaranteeing minorities heightened self-esteem, coupled with lawsuits challenging minimum competency exams and proficiency tests, erroneously assumed that these children’s self-esteem could possibly get proper nourishment in the poor households in which they are reared. Social workers and teacher created special courses and excuses for these children on a regular basis (Weissbourd, 1995).

In his book The Vulnerable Child, Weissbourd vehemently attacked such efforts asserting that although poor children are more likely to suffer an array of problems, the great majority of poor children were prepared to learn, at least when they began school.

Developmental delays are serious learning difficulties among children ages three to five are higher among the poor than among middle and upper income children. But over 75 percent of poor children ages 6-11 had never experienced significant developmental delays, or emotional troubles, or a learning disability in childhood. Weissbourd, highly discouraged enrolling disadvantaged minority kids in remedial courses or special education classes, because it would only make it more difficult for them to move into the mainstream (Weissbourd, 1995).

From lowered standards to a reduced emphasis on tests, minorities were constantly being told that their egos were somehow more fragile and thus were somehow
different form the rest of America. Even though they had the most to gain from traditional ways of teaching (Weissbourd, 1995).

In fact, African Americans could flourish in this type of environment, as the experiences of schools such as Booker T Washington (Atlanta), Xavier Prep (New Orleans), P.S. 91 (Brooklyn), and Dunbar (Washington) had shown. African Americans excel in these schools because they were expected to strive high and achieve (Horowitz, 1996).

Instead of offering a broad array of extracurricular classes or dumbing down their curriculum to increase African-American pupils’ self-esteem, they offered a strict diet of math and reading and expected students to get the job done. As Sister Helen Struder, principal of the mostly African-American Holy Angels school in Chicago, said, “After all, it’s by success that you build self-esteem” (Id & Sholrai, 1996).

Most of the research available agrees that self-concept related to academic achievement in some ways but the debate exists in how these two things are related. Some people believed that self-concept develops from academic achievement: If a student did well in his studies, he/she would have a positive self-concept. They believe the opposite would happen for students who performed poorly in school. This is referred to as the skill-development theory. The skill development model implied that academic self-concept emerges principally as a consequence of academic achievement. According to this model, the best way to enhance academic self-concept is to develop stronger academic skills (Marsh, 1988).
Other people believed that a student’s self-concept affected the student’s academic achievement in this way: If a student felt that he/she was unintelligent and that he would fail he would achieve poorly in academics? This was referred to as the self-enhancement theory. According to the self-enhancement model, self-concept is a primary determinant of academic achievement. Support for this model would provide a strong justification for self-concept enhancement interventions explicit or implicit in many educational programs (Marsh, 1988).

Within self-concept, there was also some debate over what aspect of self-concept affects academic achievement. There was general self-concept referring to how a student feels about himself/herself as a student. Most specifically, there was specific subject area self-concept, which referred to how a student felt about his/him capabilities in a specific subject area such as mathematics. Some people believed that it was important for students to have a positive general self-concept to do well academically so that they had the confidence to do what it took to achieve in school (Marsh, 1988).

How students felt about their abilities may, for better or worse, consciously or unconsciously, affect their academic performance. Thus, the idea was planted that suggested academic achievement would not be simply an expression of students’ abilities but of students’ perceptions of their abilities, which when positive, helped them to feel confident and able, but when negative caused them to feel hesitant and uncertain (Hamachek, 1995).

An emerging body of research literature (Marsh, Byrne & Shavelsohn, 1988) indicated that not only is academic self-concept clearly differentiable from general self-
concept but that academic self-concept is even more highly correlated with academic achievement than is general self-concept.

Most research however shows that having a positive academic self-concept was more important than having a positive general self-concept when related to positive academic achievement. This was due to the fact that within general self-concept, some students would have lower self-concepts due to their relationships with their peers or ability in sports, etc., but they might have a great self-concept in math, which would give them the confidence to try new things and work hard within that subject (Kurtz-Coistes & Schneider, 1994).

In regards to academic self-concept, some students would think they were generally very good academically. However, these students would have poor self-confidences in a specific subject, causing them to have distrust in themselves and therefore hindering their learning academic self-concept. Children’s views of themselves as learners has been frequently posited as an important predictor of achievement motivation, and thus, of school performance (Kurtz-Coistes & Schneider, 1994).

However, the debate about which comes first a positive general self-concept or academic self-concept is probably more academic than practical. Findings had consistently shown that self-concept is related to academic achievement and to other motivation constructs across domains (Hattie, 1992).

Schools played a major role in building or lowering students’ self-image. Eighty percent of African-American children entering schools had a positive self-image; twenty
percent retained their confidence levels by the fifth grade; yet only five percent retained their confidence levels by their senior year in high school (Silbeman, 1971).

Milner (1982) argued that good multi-racial and multi-cultural education programs are an educational and human right. He insisted that what goes on inside the school, including instructional methods and the kind of curriculum taught, are very important for minority success.

Minority student achievement would be improved by making school factors more relevant to student backgrounds. School attempts to enhance school membership, teacher expectation, and, school support presumably yielded improved student performance and outcomes (Pena, 1995).

African-American children could hardly avoid developing a deep sense of inferiority and worthlessness if they were constantly fed on ethnocentric curriculums that presented their communities and cultures in a highly biased and unflattering manner. Making the curriculum more culturally relevant with exposure to history, culture, heroes, and symbols helped students to believe in the possibilities and potentialities for them to achieve. Textbooks and curriculum guides that were used every day in the classroom should, at a minimum, contain figures that mirror the experiences of African-American students in their communities. Milner argued that the African-American child’s experience was constantly negated by the school. The negation could result in the child questioning his/her self-worth (Milner, 1982).
Parental Support

The research was overwhelmingly clear: When parents play a positive role in their children’s education, children did better in school. This is true whether parents were college-educated or grade school graduates and regardless of the family income, race, or ethnic background (Bryant, Peisner, Feinberg, Miller-Johnson, 2000).

What counted was that parents had a positive attitude about the importance of a good education and expressed confidence that their children would succeed. Major benefits of parent’s involvement include higher grades and test scores, positive attitudes and behavior, more successful academic programs, and more effective schools (Henderson, 1994).

Parental involvement is a very broad subject matter, with various definitions. Reynolds (1992) defined parent involvement as any interactions between a parent and child that may contribute to the child’s development or to direct parent participation with a child’s school in the interest of the child, Grolnick & Slowiaczek (1994) defined parent involvement as the degree to which a parent is committed to his or her role as a parent and to the fostering of optimal child development. The first teachers of our children are the adults in the home.

Former Secretary of Education Bennett (1986) was a strong advocate of parental involvement. He stated: Parents belong at the center of a young child’s education. The single best way to improve elementary education was to strengthen parents’ role in it. There were indications that proved that the most effective form of parental involvement was when the parents worked directly with their child.
Researchers found that the more activity a parent puts in, the greater the achievement for the student. When parents actively participated, (that is work with their children, attended their activities, helped in the classroom, held high expectations and aspirations for their children) greater was the child’s achievement. One reason for this was that students feel important enough for their parents to volunteer. Another reason is that parent’s model for their children how to actively participate in school. Also, students made connections between home and school, which allowed them to feel confident in mastering academic concepts (Bennett, 1986).

There were multiple dimensions of parental school involvement related to students’ academic achievement. The truth is that parental involvement could and should take many forms. Parental involvement was reading to preschool children. It was getting children ready for school every morning. It was volunteering at the school. It was serving on collaborative, decision-making committees, and it was lobbying legislatures to advocate for children (Bennett, 1986).

Milissa Abrams (2004) also described different levels of parental involvement: Authoritative parents – extremely involved parents; Harsh parents – parents that focus excessively on discipline; and Passive parents – parents who rarely get involved at all.

Of course the most preferable was the authoritative parent. It was shown that students of these parents were more competent, had higher self-control and self-reliance, and were more serious about their schoolwork.

Parenting practices of African-American parents may include more discipline and punishment than parenting practices of other ethnic groups. These practices are viewed as
necessary for successfully raising the African-American child. A more authoritarian parenting style may be functional for raising children who live under oppressive conditions (Belgrave & Allison, 2006).

But children with harsh parents also did very well in school. However, these students felt more pressured, had a lower self-esteem, were less motivated, and were categorized as a more rejected group. Researchers believed that everyday discipline constituted the beginning of moral development; however, sometimes parents had a difficult time distinguishing when the discipline went too far. Children with passive parents were considered neglected, and developed more antisocial behaviors and they were found to perform poorly academically (Schickedanz, 1995).

However passive parental involvement was better than no parental involvement but the effects were not as successful for the child. This meant that if parents engaged minimally with their children, the child benefited more than no parental involvement existed. Passive involvement is considered signing and reading written communication from the school, attending and listening to parent-teacher conferences, and other such low involvement activities. However, when parents read, and work with their children at home and developed a strong work ethic the student improved in school (Abrams, 2004).

Parental involvement led to improved student achievement and significant long-term benefits: better school attendance, reduced dropout rates, decreased delinquency, and lower pregnancy rates. These improvements occurred regardless of the economic, racial or cultural background of the family. Students whose parents were actively
involved with the school scored higher on standardized test than children of similar aptitude and family background whose parents were not involved (Henderson, 1990).

Parents are the child's first teacher. It is within the home where the children learn their attitudes and values that are engraved in them for the remainder of their lives. Parents are an invaluable resource. However as children begin school many parents asked themselves how they could be positively involved in their children's education. Research suggested that "the more intensively parents were involved in their children's learning, the more beneficial were the achievement effects" (Cotton and Wikelund, 2002).

Those who researched school-community partnerships reported that when schools welcomed parents and showed them how to improve their child's learning at home they were far more likely to increase their school parental involvement and the motivation of their students. Researchers recognized the necessity for schools and parents to collaborate in their efforts to improve student learning. It has been concluded that students' academic performance was dependent upon the parent-teacher bond. Schools with the most active parents were those that present an assortment of ways for parents to participate. Each parent could choose a method, which worked for them and their lifestyle (Epstein, 1991).

Baker and Soden reported that major legislation, such as the Goal 2000, Educate America Act and the reauthorized Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) had made parental involvement in their children's education a national priority. School districts nationwide were being encouraged to examine their parental involvement policies and programs and to demonstrate innovative approaches in order to obtain federal education dollars. In particular, eligibility for Title I funding available to school
districts in high poverty areas was now contingent upon the development of “contracts” in which families and schools agreed to assume mutual responsibility for children’s learning. Partnerships must develop between home, schools, and communities, requiring an unprecedented level of contact and communication between parents and educators (U.S. Department of Education, 1994).

When schools worked together with families to support learning, children tended to succeed not just in school, but also throughout life. In fact, the most accurate predictor of a student’s achievement in school was not income or social status, but the extent to which that student’s family was able to: 1) create a home environment that encourage learning; 2) express high expectations for their children’s achievement and future careers; and 3) become involved in their children’s education at school and in the community (Henderson, 1994).

Henderson (1994) reviewed 66 studies involving parent involvement and student achievement and found that when parents were involved in their children’s education at home they did better in school. When parents were involved at school, their children went farther in school and the schools were better.

Walberg (1984) concluded from an analysis of over 2,500 studies on learning that an academically stimulating home environment was one of the chief determinants of learning. From those studies, Walberg selected 29 that were conducted during the last decade. He found commonalities that he called a “curriculum of the home” that had an average effect on achievement that was twice as large as family socioeconomic status (SES). This curriculum included informed parent-child conversations about everyday
events, encouragement and discussion of leisure reading, monitoring and joint analysis of television viewing, deferral of immediate gratification to achieve long-range goals, expressions of affection and interest in children’s academic and personal growth.

Academic achievement was positively correlated with realistic, high parent expectations for children’s school performance (Amato & Ochiltree, 1986). For example, Entwisle and Hayduk (1988) found that parents’ estimates of their children’s ability had long-term effects on achievement. Scott-Jones (1984) found that realistic and accurate parent expectations (i.e. those close to the child’s actual performance) were associated with children’s superior performance on cognitive tasks.

Parental expectation may have had an indirect effect on academic performance through the impact on parental behaviors such as contact with the school and positive reinforcement of schoolwork and performance. Children’s personal beliefs and expectations about their achievement are often highly correlated with those held by their parents (Johnson, Brookover, & Farrell, 1989).

The degree to which parents held expectations or how parents communicated their expectations to children had been found to differ as a function of social strata and parental occupation. White collar parents tended to influence their children’s achievement through stated expectations and modeling, while “blue collar” parents tended to influence children through stated expectations only (Cohen, 1987).

Sattes (1985), from a review of 30 studies on the connection between family background and school achievement, concluded that parental evolved factors such as reading to children, having books available, taking trips, guiding TV watching, and
providing stimulation experiences contributed to school achievement. "The fact that family SES was related to school achievement didn’t mean that rich kids were born smarter. It meant that, in more affluent families, children were more likely to be exposed to experiences that stimulated intellectual development."

While parents’ education-related beliefs were significantly associated with their achievement-fostering behaviors in the home, for low income African-American third and fourth graders, parent beliefs and expectations were more strongly linked to child achievement in reading and math than were parents reported instruction in the home (Halle, Kurtz-Costes, & Mahoney, 1997).

There was some evidence for differences in the types of parent expectations related to school and career. Parents of low achieving, low-income African-American children emphasized good behavior more that learning. Interestingly, they held high career aspirations (e.g., doctor, lawyer, nurse) for their children even when they were in early elementary grades. Parents of higher-achieving children emphasized learning more than behavior, and indicated they wanted their children to achieve their personal career goals (Scott-Jones (1987).

Parental expectations are influenced by the reasons parents ascribed for their children’s performance in school. In general, the use of efforts attributions (i.e., you did well because you tried hard and practiced a lot) to explain school performance was strongly related to positive achievement outcomes (Stevenson & Lee, 1990).

It had also been shown that: (a) parental knowledge of children’s current schoolwork and school activities affects parents’ ability to set realistic expectations for
children performance (b) parental expectations of youth for post-secondary outcomes was associated positively with academic performance (c) parent expectations for children to read and to learn math and to request verbal responses from their children were associated with better academic performance (d) parents’ verbal expectations for continued achievement and urging children to work hard in school were strongly related to student achievement; and (e) parental expectations for deferral of immediate gratification to achieve long range goals were correlated with more successful school outcomes (Kellaghan, Sloane, Alvarez, & Bloom, 1993).

Teacher Attitude

The daily classroom experiences of students were significantly altered by teacher’s actions. These experiences served to communicate to students the respect and appraisal held by teachers toward them. Respect, fair treatment and honest appraisal form the basis of student’s perceptions of teacher attitudes (Irvine, 1990).

Students identified teachers as significant others in their lives, and suggested that how students felt about themselves to a large extent, was determined by children’s perceptions of how the teacher felt about them. Teacher’s attitudes were generally revealed in their actions in spite of many forces operating to contain their expressions. Although teachers typically tried to be impartial in their daily work, most would probably concede that they were more personally involved with some students than with others. Moreover, this involvement would have either positive or negative overtones (Irvine, 1990).
Teacher attitudes toward students affected the quality and quantity of contacts they had with students. If teachers consistently used positive actions and language to reinforce what they believed to be a student's potential, students would excel based on the teachers' message of expected achievement (Irvine, 1990).

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) posited that teachers conveyed their expectations through their behavior. In their findings they stated, by what she said, by how and when she said it, by her facial expressions, posture, and perhaps by her touch, the teacher may have communicated to the children of the experimental group that she expected improved intellectual performance. A teacher's behavior towards individual students along with the communications used, might aid the learning of certain students by increasing their self-concept, self-expectations, and their motivation.

Sociologist and medical doctor Gloria Johnson Powell (1983) cited Patchern and Davidson's study that observed that a major force at work in racial interaction among the students was the teacher's attitudes. Teachers' bias against minority children, however, led to lower expectations for academic achievement, which resulted in resegregation. Minority children were placed in remedial classes due to teacher biases and low expectations. Powell concluded, negative teacher attitudes led to actual discrimination.

Davidson and Lang (1960) one of the axioms of education psychology, made the statement that a child learns only when he is motivated to learn. Furthermore, the basic incentives, which a teacher could furnish, were her acceptance of the child on one hand and approval on the other. The teacher's feelings of acceptance and approval were communicated to the child and perceived by him as positive appraisals. It is likely that
these appraisals encouraged the child to seek further teacher approval by achieving well and behaving in a manner acceptable to his teacher.

We may also begin this cycle with the child's behavior. The child who achieved well and behaved satisfactorily was bound to please his teacher. She, in turn, communicated positive feelings toward the child, thus reinforcing his desire to be a good pupil. Which of these variables served as the primary determinant is in fact difficult to ascertain. It seems rather that they reinforce each other. The implications here were clear. It is essential that teachers communicated positive feelings to their children and thus not only strengthened their positive self-appraisals but stimulated their growth, academically as well as interpersonally (Davison & Lang, 1960).

The academic self-image was unlikely to be enhanced when teachers provide an academic experience that was defeating and discouraging. Teachers who had negative attitudes toward their students contributed to the massive educational failure of African-American and Hispanic youth and could actually serve to enhance the academic self-image (Levin, 1983).

Martin (1980) found that teachers who focused on their student's strengths enhanced the student's self-confidence and positive self-image. Social workers could help teachers provide this encouragement by identifying and developing some of the unique formal, cultural and social strengths African-American and Hispanic youth brought to the classroom. An understanding of how the social self-image could be used to bolster the academic self-image was critical to academic achievement.
Teacher expectations were particularly important in the development of positive self-images in African-American students. Because the academic self-image of African-American students was vital to their academic successes, teachers must work hard to ensure that these students had positive experiences in school (Kerman, 1979).

Teachers need to recognize that their expectations had an effect on their students’ concept of themselves as learners and achievers and the internalization of negative or positive beliefs about their intelligence (Flaxma, 2003).

African-American youth may be taught at home to appreciate certain skills that were not always valued in the classroom and that did not reflect the school’s norms. These included restricted language codes or symbols, nonverbal communication, dance and rhythmic movements, learning through cooperation, and verbal interplay during instruction. This dichotomy between the culture of the school and culture of the family and community could count for much of the discrepancy between academic social self-concept (Kerman, 1979).

Perhaps the most damaging consequences of low teacher expectations were the erosion of academic self-image in students. Sam Kerman studied how teacher expectations affected low achievers and showed that teacher interaction with students perceived as low achievers was less motivational and less supportive than interaction with students perceived as high achievers. High achievers received more time to respond to questions. When high achievers did have difficulty, teachers tended to delve, give clues, or rephrase the question more frequently than with low achievers (Kerman, 1979).
These placed low achievers at a considerable disadvantage because they did not have an equal opportunity to probe their thoughts, develop their answers and voice their responses. By not encouraging the responses of low-achieving students, teachers reinforced students' feelings of inadequacy and lessened their desire to learn. If a student consistently received negative messages from their teachers, they began to internalize these messages and accept these signals as a reflection of reality (Kerman, 1979).

African-American youth are more influenced by teacher perceptions than by their own perceptions. African-American youth could be victimized by low teacher expectations, which were too often based on a teacher's preconceived notions about the potential and ability of students of a particular race, rather than on the actual performance of individual students. These low expectations were capable of destroying students' egos and contributed to the loss of positive cultural and racial identity in students (Williams & Muehle, 1978).

As teachers increased their expectations of African-American youth, their behavior towards these youth changed. When high expectations were evident, teachers provided more support and children felt more positive about their ability and self-worth (Muranane, 1975).

Studies indicated that for African-American students in particular, classroom environments, especially student-teacher relations, influenced educational outcomes and disengagement. African-American students who felt understood, accepted, and respected by their teachers were likely to have positive relationships with teachers; in turn, positive
relation increased teachers’ expectations and students’ motivation and achievement (Yu & Davidson, 1994).

Teacher expectations and attitudes were part of a chain of variables that led to a negative self-fulfilling prophecy for minority students. The quality of teacher-student relationships was especially important for African-American students for several reasons. First, African-American students were likely to be taught by white teachers in urban school districts. Much data reveal an ever-increasing cultural gap between African-American students and teachers, the vast majority of whom were white females 76% (Darling-Hammond, 1994).

African-American teachers comprised only 5% of teachers in urban schools and the percentage is projected to decrease. Second, despite the cultural gap, few teachers had received substantive preparation in multicultural education; therefore few teachers were trained to examine their own biases and stereotypes regarding African-American students. Furthermore few teachers lived in the neighborhoods in which they taught so they didn’t know the cultural values brought to their classrooms (Banks & Banks, 1993).

These factors contributed to a lack of understanding of, appreciation of, and respect for the cultural differences on the part of teachers. They also contributed to low teacher expectations. Third, the cultural gap affected the content and quality of curriculum for African-American students. Few schools infused multiculturalism throughout the curriculum (Banks & Banks, 1993).

The lack of teacher diversity and preparation in multicultural education were major concerns in regular education. African-American students were often in conflict
with their schools due to a cultural discontinuity: the student's language, and behavior, and learning style. The African American is Afrocentric while the teachers, administrators, and school structures were Eurocentric (Irvine 1990).

The problem of improving the achievement of cultural, ethnic, and racial minorities was one of the most pressing issues facing educators. Many educators were unaware of the differences that existed among the cultural values of European American, African American, Asian American, Hispanic American, and American Indians. Cultural values included clusters of beliefs held by cultural, ethnic, or racial groups that shaped all aspects of their functioning, including their family structures, tradition, communication patterns, child rearing practices, and their perspectives on the teaching/learning styles (Irvine, 1990).

Spindler (1963), reported that teachers were cultural transmitters. Because teachers brought their own culture into the classroom, when teachers faced a conflict in cultural values, they often reacted by rigidly adhering to their own set of values, thus, inadvertently, their behavior could interfere with the learning of their students.

Considerable research suggested that teachers had difficulty incorporating new visions of reality that conflicted with their own personal beliefs and experiences. This problem was particularly acute for African-American males who were disproportionately labeled as underachievers and placed in special education classes. However, the problem went far beyond this one group and included African-American females, American Indians, Hispanics and some subgroups of Asian Americans. If current trends in educational achievement continued, millions of students, primarily poor African-
American, Asian, Native American, and Hispanics would not obtain the education necessary for full participation in the economic and civil life of the country (Bowman 1994).

When practitioners assumed that there is a “Mainstream behavior” that should be used as the sole criterion for healthy development, children found themselves misdiagnosed and inappropriately treated and their learning potential miscalculated, not because they had not learned a great deal, but because they had not learned the thing that schools value. Misunderstanding cultural differences led schools to inappropriately place minority children who were developmentally normal in special education and low-ability groups, and to expect less from them than from other children (Bowman, 1994).

For instance, they tended to evaluate poor African-American children as less mature and, therefore, held lower expectations for them than for children whose socioeconomic status was higher. Such an interpretation of cultural differences presented an obstacle to children’s learning in school (Bowman, 1994).

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) believed that standardized tests of intelligence were one of the factors that played a key role in teachers’ expectations about their students’ achievement. This did not mean that the researchers viewed standardized testing as negative, but they believed that the results may influence a teacher’s assumptions about his or her student’s potential.

Standardized testing and screening of young children vividly demonstrated the danger of using white, middle-class children as the gauge for judging other children. It is not coincidental that poor and minority children were over-represented in certain types of
early intervention, special education, and at risk programs. Because tests fail to separate cultural from development, they attributed a child’s inability to perform particular tasks to developmental delay. The child may know something else that is a developmental equivalent, but if he or she did not know what is on the test, it is assumed that there was something wrong. Therefore, if the child were normal he or she would have learned to perform the test (Bowman, 1994).

One of the most widely used tests for the measurement of children’s intelligence, the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children – Revised (WISC-R), was considered to be an extremely biased and limited test by many African-American educators and psychologists. If a test was made specifically for a particular group one would expect members of that group to score higher on the test than members from other groups. Most standardized IQ (Intelligence Quotient) test used were culture-specific in that they were comprised of items and validated against responses taken from the specific culture of the white middle class. Hence, persons belonging to other socio-economic classes and other racial groups tended to make responses that deviate from the identified norm (Hilliard, 1997).

Wilson (1978) asserted that the ‘intelligence’ determined by IQ test is the ‘intelligence’ which may be defined as the degree to which an individual has assimilated and accommodated, i.e., adapted himself to a certain set of values, standards, attitudes, ways of verbalizing ways of thinking, ways of perceiving and other ways of behaving, that a particular culture subculture or individual evaluates as important to the
maintenance and advancement of its way of life. Thus, intelligence is always culturally defined.

Shade suggested that in American schools, the cognition style that supports academic achievement is sequential analytical, and object-oriented. Her review of the literature described the styles of African Americans, in contrast as universalistic, intuitive, and relational. Boykin suggested that African-American children prefer educational environments that are congruent with their cultural preferences for verve, and Hale-Benson suggested that African-American children prefer relational learning settings and experiences (Belgrave & Allison, 2006).

It appeared the minority individual were being judged by a test which was based on an experience which he or she has not been allowed to have and which gave no credibility to his or her actual experiences. As a means of correcting for the bias, some investigators have suggested that separate intelligence test should be developed for minority groups (Williams and Mitchell, 2004).

In 1972, Williams developed the African-American Intelligence Test of Cultural Homogeneity. This test was specific to African American culture and consists of material that is unfamiliar to most middle-class whites. The Williams test is a 100-item, multiple-choice test consisting of words and phrases taken from the African American experience (Williams, 1975).

Though not yielding an actual IQ, the results were helpful in determining the degree of an individual's familiarity with African American values, traditions, and customs and overall worldview, as reflected in the vocabulary of African American
culture. African Americans scored consistently higher than whites on African American culture-specific test (Williams and Mitchell, 2004).

Wilson (1978) stated that no test, IQ or otherwise had been found or created that determines the true intellectual capacity of an individual. Culturally biased test should not be used for the placement of African-American and Hispanic youth because they did not reflect the true ability of many students.

Current tests, such as the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test, include items that assess moral opinions and other values that reflect social class bias rather than ability. IQ tests were considered by many experts as one tool used to deny equal educational opportunities to African-American and Hispanic youth (Williams and Mitchell, 2004).

In his study on the impact of IQ testing on student placement, Asa Hilliard (1997) suggested that educators must find alternatives to IQ testing in order to identify giftedness in African-American and Hispanic children. In California, Indiana, and some other states the courts had addressed the issue and concluded that “minorities” should not be placed through the use of biased IQ testing and other instruments.

The role models they see in their teachers have inspired African-American and Hispanic students, especially their African-American and Hispanic teachers. Many teachers were discouraged because they believed their students lacked adequate role models in their homes and communities. Rather than concern themselves with influences outside of the school over which they had no control, teachers could make the most of the time they have with students. Remember, most students spend more time interacting with
their "school family" (approximately six hours every day) than they spend interacting with their family" (Improving Black Student Achievement, 2001).

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this research is composed of three theories, Gibson’s Theory of Direct Perception, The Social Reproduction Theory and Ogbu’s Cultural Inversion Theory. These three theories provide a context for developing hypotheses to test in this investigation and serves as the theoretical basis for interpreting this study’s findings.

The first theory that will be used is Gibson’s Direct Perception Theory. Perception is defined as the process through which we make sense out of the world (Runyon, 1997).

Sue Stephenson (2001) defined perception as the process whereby information about one’s environment received by the senses is organized and interpreted so it becomes meaningful. Perception encompasses all processes associated with the recognition, transformation and organization of sensory information.

Gibson (1979) conceived of perception as an inherently active process. According to Gibson, perception is not an appearance in the theater of an individual’s consciousness but rather, a keeping in-touch with the world, an experiencing of things rather than a having of experiences. Gibson held that the purpose of perception is to guide an organism’s actions and thus any theory of perception ought to account for “an organism
apprehension of its environment and how it controls its acts with respect to that environment” (Turvey et al 1981).

The process through which a society reconstructs itself from generation to generation so that it looks much the same in its’ division of wealth and power is called “Social Reproduction.” The theory of Social Reproduction maintained that the exiting class structure and social inequalities of individuals in a capitalist society is reproduced by that society (Schramm, 2000). Current thought is that schools are where this insidious process first comes to fruition. To a large degree, this is mediated by the social distance between the students and those administering the educational process (Casmor, 2004).

Many scholars such as Maxine Green, Peter McClaren, Henry Giroux, Richard Quantz, Francis Fowler, Paulo Freiere, Dennis Carlson Joel Sprong, and Michael Apple suggested that schools play an important role in social reproduction. Some argued that schools actually teach different knowledge to different levels of students. For example, they point out that the schools for children of the social elite tend to teach higher order thinking skills including independent critical thinking while schools for the children of working class and the poor tend to teach the most rote and basic learning skills, including how to follow directions and the do what you are told philosophy. They suggested that children of the social elite accumulated “cultural capital,’ a knowledge of the elite culture (e.g. how to talk, walk, carry oneself, dress, etc.), which was used by them to be accepted into the top schools and the top jobs (Schramm, 2000).

The third theory used for this study is Ogubu’s Cultural Inversion Theory. Ogubu explained that cultural inversion or cultural opposition occurred when members of a
minority group adopted behaviors that directly contradicted a specific prominent aspect of the dominant culture (Aninsworth-Darbnell & Sowney, 1998).

While cultural inversion may arise for various reasons for some members of a given minority group, Ogbu argued that its genesis could be understood by considering the Voluntary and Involuntary status of that group. Voluntary minorities were often represented by immigrants who held positive expectations regarding their future well being in their new location for example, these individuals would anticipate economic, educational, social or religious benefits from the immigration. Involuntary minorities would be typified by individuals who were conquered or relocated against their will, and who often did not hold the same position expectation for their future as voluntary minorities (Aninsworth-Darbnell & Sowney, 1998).

The reasons Ogbu gave for the success and failure of voluntary minorities was that immigrants possess a positive dual frame of reference that they used to interpret the economic, political, and social barriers against the more or less temporary problems as problems they would overcome. Involuntary minorities interpreted the same obstacles differently and without this frame of reference (Ogbu, 1991).

Ogbu suggested that because they did not have a homeland situation to compare with the situation in the United States, they did not interpret their menial jobs as better or temporary. For involuntary minorities discrimination was permanent and institutionalized forcing them to look outside of school and individual effort to collective efforts for overcoming barriers to getting ahead (Grahm, Taylor & Huldey, 1998).
Ogbu posited that the reasons for minority student failure lay in the racial, social and economic stratification found in the United States. In the case of education, however, there existed evidence to document that both African-American and Hispanic students did appear to have oppositional subcultures that devalued academic accomplishments which further suggested detachment for the academic domain (Graham, Taylor & Huldey 1998).

An underlying assumption of this study is that academic achievement is a social accomplishment. Central to the theoretical frame was the view that emphasized the interactive processes among learner within the social context of learning, and the role of more knowledgeable others in facilitating learning (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976).

These theorists have explained the relationship between one’s self-perceptions, social, racial and economic inequalities and the academic achievement of students. Gibson contended that perception is an inherently active process where information about one’s environment is received, organized and interpreted so that it becomes meaningful. Those responsible for the education and socialization of students (i.e. teachers and parents) could be perceived by them in such a way as to either enhance or diminish their academic achievement. The expectations and evaluations of others are crucial to the formation of one’s perception.

The theory of Social Reproduction maintained that schools socialized students in a capitalist process. The existing class structure and social inequalities of individuals in a capitalist society were reproduced by that society. This social distance explicitly served to widen the gap in perceptions of the abilities of low-income students, and the effects on
academic achievement demonstrated by lower standardized achievement scores, as well as lower school self-esteem.

Ogbu using the terms voluntary and involuntary to describe the minority status of African Americans contended that the historical legacies of racism and discrimination especially as they related to educational and employment opportunities had a decidedly negative influence on the school performance of African-Americans. This study emphasized the role of classroom interactions and addresses the powerful influences of family and community on academic achievement of fourth-grade students.

This researcher proposes to examine the school experiences of fourth-grade minority students to understand how these students perceive themselves, teacher attitude, parental support and success in schools. This examination may generate an understanding on how teacher attitudes, parental support and self-concept as perceived by the student, support or constrain the achievement of these students.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents a design for explaining and describing the scope of the relationship between the dependent variable academic achievement and the independent variables which are teacher attitude, parental support and self-concept. The following are described: research design; description of the site population; sample instrumentation; treatment of the data, and limitations of this study.

Research Design

A descriptive and explanatory research design was employed for this study. The study was designed to examine the relationship between teacher attitude, parental support, self-concept and academic achievement among fourth-grade students who attend Atlanta Public Schools and Clayton County Schools. The research design was chosen because the descriptive and explanatory research design allows the researcher to investigate relatively small amounts of data and subjects using descriptive and inferential statistics, survey techniques and statistical tests.

A descriptive research design gives indication of the type of study proposed and how it will be conducted. The current research is designed to examine whether a relationship exists between teacher attitude, parental support, self-concept and academic...
achievement of fourth-grade students in the Atlanta Public Schools and Clayton County Schools.

Description of the Site

Two sites were used in this study. The first site was the Gamma Boys and Girls Club located in Atlanta. Students participate in after school programs at this facility. The researcher was given names of fourth-grade students by the facility Director. These students were given parent permission slips to complete and return. Parents were asked to give written permission for students to participate and requested to provide a copy of the students’ report card. Students who returned with completed parent permission slips and report cards were given the survey to complete at the Boys and Girls Club administered by the researcher and facilitated by the Director of the Boys and Girls Club. All of the student respondents attended Atlanta Public Schools. The second site was Alpha Elementary School located in Clayton County. Forth-grade students were identified and given parent permission slips to complete and return. Parents were asked to give written permission for students to participate and requested to provide a copy of the student’s report card. Students who returned with completed parent permission slips and report cards were given the survey to complete in the classroom administered by the researcher and facilitated by the classroom teacher. No incentives were offered to parents or students to participate in the survey.
Population and Sample

The sample included 98, eight, nine, ten and eleven year old fourth grade students. Of those sampled there were forty-six female and fifty-two male that was comprised of eighty-two African Americans, one white, five Hispanics and 10 whom considered themselves other. Students in the sample attended Atlanta Public Schools and Clayton County Public Schools. The sample was overwhelming African American however Hispanic Americas were included because increasingly formal and informal studies pair theses groups when comparing academic achievement. This cursory look at the Hispanic data is important because Hispanics are becoming the leading minority in this country so that using this data might suggest trends for further studies. The subjects were selected for inclusion in the study on the basis of a convenience sampling technique. Convenience sampling was chosen because it allows for any respondent that is willing and available to participate. Fourth-grade students were investigated since it was found that academic achievement tended to decrease substantially at this grade level (Kunjufu, 1974). The students were from lower socioeconomic backgrounds and all of them were taught in single classrooms. Homeroom teachers generally taught most of the curriculum. Students did however have different teachers for gym and music and art.

Instrumentation

The respondent were asked to complete a questionnaire designed by the researcher that assessed the students' perception of teacher attitude, self-concept and parental support as it related to his or her academic achievement. The questionnaire is
titled Student Perception Questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed to appropriately secure the relevant data needed to identify students' perceptions and one that was easy to administer. The questionnaire was carefully developed to address the students' level of comprehension to measure their perception and variables that impact academic achievement. It was designed to assess specific aspects of students' feelings about their teacher, parent and their own feelings related to academic achievement. The questions were placed on a 2-point scale: 1 = yes and 2 = no.

The questionnaire for this study had four sections. Section I provided demographic information about the Parent/Guardian. In section I, eight questions addressed gender, age, parent/guardian relationship, education, race public assistance status, marital status, and employment status. Section II of the questionnaire had three demographic questions that described the student. They were age, gender and race.

Section III of the questionnaire was designed to measure the three independent variables of the study, student perception of teacher attitude, student perception of parental support and student perception of self-concept. This section had seventeen questions divided into three sections to address each of the independent variables. The questions were measured on a two-point scale. This scale allowed a student to record perception on teacher attitude, parental support and self-concept by responding 1 = yes and 2 = no. Individual students served as the unit of measurement in this research.

Section IV of the questionnaire was designed to explore the dependent variable academic achievement. This section identified nine academic areas: Language Arts, Mathematics, Foreign Language, Science, Social Studies, Health, Physical Education,
Music and Art. Attendance and Conduct were also identified. These eleven areas were measured on a four point scale; 1 = poor, 2 = fair, 3 = good and 4 = excellent. There were several advantages to using this questionnaire. First, the questions were specifically designed to address certain areas or student perception. The questions allowed for each of the three independent variables to be measured separately. This gave the researcher a clearer understanding of the sample population's perception. The questions were clear and concise and asked the respondents for yes or no responses. The student's report card for the first reporting period of the 2006-2007 academic years was used to determine the academic achievement of the students. The researcher collected all data.

Data Analysis

Statistical treatment of the data included chi-square, phi, measures of frequency distribution, and cross tabulations. Data were analyzed utilizing the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), which provide the procedures to organize and analyze the data collected from the questionnaire.

Frequency distribution was used on each of the variables of the study in order to summarize the basic measurements of the study. A demographic profile was developed from the study's participants and parents using items from the questionnaire. A frequency distribution also was used to generate demographic information and this information is presented on tables within this dissertation.

Cross tabulations were performed on the three independent variables: teacher attitude, parental support, and self-concept with the dependent variable (academic
achievement). This measurement was used to show the strength of the relationship between the variables.

Two test statistics were employed. The first test was Phi (Φ) which is a symmetric measure of association used to demonstrate the strength of relationship between two or more variables (Bromstead and Knoke, 1995). The following are the values associated with phi (Φ):

- .00 to .24 “no relationship”
- .25 to .49 “weak relationship”
- .50 to .74 “moderate relationship”
- .75 to 1.00 strong relationship”

The second test statistics employed was chi square. Chi Square was used to test whether there was a significant statistical significance at .05 level of probability among the variables in the study.

Limitations of the Study

This study had the following limitations. The study sample was selected from students living in low income communities in the Greater Metropolitan Atlanta area. The study’s findings therefore cannot be generalized to a larger population. The reliability and validity of the information in this study is restricted to the respondents’ ability to honestly report their perception of teacher attitude, parental support, and self-concept as it relates to their academic achievement. In philosophy, perception is defined as the complex method of obtaining information about our surrounding world, specifically through our
senses, and apprehending this information as beliefs. The main philosophical problem
with this notion of perception is that we should not accept our perceptions as being
reliable, since (1) it is possible for us to misperceive objects in the world; (2) our senses
are susceptible to illusions (e.g. hallucinations); and (3) it is unclear how much
epistemological value perceptions have or how much belief if any, should be rooted in
that which we perceive (The Internet Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2001).

The study examined the possible relationship between teacher attitude, parental
support, self-concept and the academic achievement of fourth-grade students in the
Atlanta Public Schools and Clayton County Public Schools.

This chapter presented a design for examining and explaining the relationship
between the dependent variable academic achievement and three independent variables
teacher attitude, parental support, and self-concept used in the study. It described the
research design, description of the site, population and sample, instrumentation, treatment
of the data, and the limitations of the study that were used in this study.
CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings of the study in order to describe and explain the perception of academic achievement among fourth-grade students in relationship to teacher attitudes, parental support and student self-concept. The findings were organized into two sections: demographic data and research questions and hypotheses.

Demographic Data

This section provides a profile of the study respondent’s parent/guardian background information and the study respondents’ background information. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the following parent/guardian information: gender, age group, education, relationship to student, race, public assistance status, marital status and their present employment and gender, age, and race of the study respondents.

The target population for this research was composed of fourth-grade students in the Clayton County School and the Atlanta Public Schools. Ninety eight students were selected utilizing convenience sampling from fourth-grade students of the two school districts.
Table 1. Demographic Profile of Study Respondents Parent/Guardian

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Group</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 30</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 50</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less-High School</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School Grad</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>91.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandparent</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>84.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.2</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table 1—Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public Assistance</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>25.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never on Assistance</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never Married</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full Time</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>62.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part Time</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 is a demographic profile of the parent/guardian of the participants in this study. Of the 98 respondents, 85 or 86.7% are female and the parent of a student in the study. Thirteen or 13.3% of the study respondents’ parent was male. There were 25 or 25.5% under thirty but mostly the students in the study came from parents or guardians between the ages of thirty to thirty-nine; 27 or 27.6% were between forty and forty-nine;
and 7 or 7.1% are over 50. The majority of the participants in this study came from single female headed households of older mature parents or guardians.

Only 13 parents or guardians or 13.3% reported not finishing high school but 47 or 48% are high school graduates and 38 or 38.8% have some college. In general, it could be posited that these parents have high expectations of their children and would support positive educational goals and achievement.

Ninety or 91.1% were the parent of the student in the study and only eight or 8.2% of the caretakers were grandparents.

Of the 98 parent/guardians, 83 or 84.7% were African-American; 5 or 5.1% were Hispanic and 10 or 10.2% reported as "Other." The parents/guardians were overwhelmingly African-American, the focus of the inquiry.

Twenty five or 25.5% were on public assistance; 44 or 44.9% were former public aid recipients and 29 or 29.6% were never on public assistance. Thirty four or 34.7% of the parents/guardians were married and 44 or 44.3% reported never married; 9 or 9.2% were divorced; 8 or 8.2% were separated and 2 or 2.2% were widowed. Sixty-one or 62.2% of these parents/guardians worked full-time; 17 or 17.3% worked part-time and 20 or 20.4% were unemployed. The majority of the students in this study came from homes where parents or guardians had full time employment.
Table 2. Demographic Profile of the Fourth-Grade Study Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>53.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eight</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nine</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>75.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ten</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>83.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 is a demographic profile of the fourth-grade student respondents. The majority of the respondents 53% were African-American males nine years old with 46% African-American females nine years old. There was only 1 or 1.0% eight year old; 74 or 75.5% nine year olds; 21 or 22.4% ten year olds and 2 or 2.0% eleven year olds. Ninety five percent of the students in this study were in their appropriate grade. Generally fourth graders are children nine and ten years old.
Three primary ethnic groups were represented 82 or 83.7% were African American; 1 or 1.0% was white and 5 or 5.1% was Hispanic. Ten percent or 10.2% of the participants self-identified as “Other” without giving ethnic identification.

Perception

Research on African-American children shows that important factors in the academic success of a child is how the child perceives his teacher feelings toward him, his parents’ support of him, and his own feelings about himself and towards his school achievement (Irvine, 1990). Ochse, (2001) suggested that success or failure is not solely determined by actual ability or lack of ability but by our perceptions of our ability.

In this study student’s perception was defined as the state of one’s awareness of oneself, the consciousness of oneself and how one senses, sees, thinks about and experiences the world. Among the significant people believed to affect the child’s feelings about himself are first, his parents and later his teacher (Davidson and Lang, 1960).

Teacher Attitude

Teacher attitude was defined as the system of expectations, beliefs and values that mediated teacher’s interactions with students. Students identify teachers as significant others in their lives and how students feel about themselves to a large extent is determined by a child’s perception of how the teacher feels about him or her. The daily classroom experiences of students were significantly altered by teacher’s actions. These
experiences served to communicate to student the respect and appraisal held by teachers toward them. Respect, fair treatment and honest appraisal form the bases of student’s perceptions of teacher attitude (Irvine, 1990).

Table 3 is a frequency distribution of the perception students have regarding teachers’ attitude towards them among 98 fourth-grade students. The table indicates whether or not the respondents perceived the teacher to have a positive attitude towards them.

The variables listed in Table 3 are as follows:

Teacher 12: My teacher smiles at me when I get good grades in school.

Teacher 13: My teacher says nice things to me when I do well with my school work.

Teacher 14: I understand my school work when my teacher explains it to me.

Teacher 15: My teacher assists me with my school work.

Teacher 16: My teacher is nice to me.

Teacher 17: My teacher says I’m smart.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 12</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 13</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 14</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3—Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 15</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>93.9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 16</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>82.7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 17</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>76.5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 3, the students overall perceived the teacher as having a positive attitude towards them. 75% to 93% said yes to questions related to the teacher attitude and only 6% to 24% said no to questions related to teacher attitude which indicated that they perceived a negative attitude towards them.

Parental Support

Parental support was defined as the demonstration of encouragement, interest and involvement in the child’s classroom work. How the child perceives parental support is quite significant and has a direct effect on the students’ academic achievement.

Table 4 is frequency distributions of the perceptions students have regarding the support they received from their parent. Table 4 indicates whether or not the respondents perceived their parents to exhibit positive or negative behavior towards them.

The variables listed in Table 4 are as follows:

Parent 18: My parent smiles at me when I get good grades in school.

Parent 19: My parent says nice things to me when I do well in school.
Parent 20: My parent smiles when I get good grades in school.

Parent 21: I understand my school work when my parent explains it to me.

Parent 22: My parent assists me with my school work.

Parent 23: My parent says I’m smart.

Table 4. Student Perceptions of Parental Support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent 18</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>96.6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent 19</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>98.0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent 20</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>88.8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent 21</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent 22</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>92.9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent 23</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>95.9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 4 the majority of the respondents 87.8% to 98.0% of the respondents indicated that they perceived parenting behaviors to be positive by indicating yes to questions and only 3.1% to 12.2% of the respondents indicated that they perceived parenting behaviors to be negative by indicating no to questions related to parental support.
Self-Concept

Self-concept is defined as the perception that each one has about himself, formed from experiences and relationship with the environment. The development of a child’s self-image is perhaps the most important barometer of future success (Improving African American Students, 2001). Numerous studies have concluded that self-concept influences achievement in school and assumes an important role in the educational process (Gill, 1991).

Table 5 is a frequency distribution for the variable of self-concept. The table indicates whether or not the respondent had a good perception of self. Praise and acceptance strengthen self-image, while criticism and disapproval lower it. Hamachek (1995) asserted that self-concept and school achievement were related.

The variables listed in Table 5 are as follows:

Student 24: I smile when I get good grades in school.
Student 25: I say nice things about myself when I do well in school.
Student 26: I understand how to do my school work.
Student 27: I like it when people are nice to me.
Student 28: I say I am smart.

As shown in Table 5 academic self-concept of the study respondents is high. The majority of the respondents 74% to 96% indicated yes to questions suggesting high levels of self-perceptions of their own academic abilities and only 2% to 24% of the study respondents indicated no to questions suggesting low levels of self-perceptions of their own academic abilities.
Table 5. Student Perceptions of Self-Concept

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 24</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>95.9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 24</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>95.9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 25</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 26</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>83.7</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 27</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>98.0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 28</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>93.9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Actual Student Achievement

Academic Achievement was defined as the mastery of designated standardized skills per grade level. There is a presumed connection between teacher attitude, parent support, self-concept and the student’s academic achievement. Table 6 is a frequency distribution for the variable of academic achievement. Table 6 indicates the actual achievement of the study respondents as reported on their report cards.

As shown in Table 6 the majority of the respondents 73 or 74.5% were in the range of good (3.0-3.5); 5 or 5.1% excellent (4.0), 13 or 13.3 percent fair (2.5) and 7 or 7.1% were poor (2.0). Overwhelmingly students had above average academic achievement in English, Mathematics, Science, Social Studies, Art, Music, and Physical Education.
Table 6. Actual Student Achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poor (2.0)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair (2.5)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good (3.0-3.5)</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>74.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent (4.0)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 is a frequency distribution for the computed variable academic achievement.

In order to determine the value of the variable, the values poor (2.0) and fair (2.5) were combined to get the new value below average and the values good (3.0-3.5) and excellent (4.0) were combined to get the new value above average.

Table 7. Actual Student Achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Above Average</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>79.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below Average</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table 7, of the 98 respondents, 20 or 20.4% of the students had below average academic achievement and 78 or 79.6% of the students had above average academic achievement.

Table 8 is a frequency distribution of the computed variable student perception of teacher attitude. The three selected questions teacher 12, teacher 13, and teacher 14 were computed to get the new computed variable for student perception of teacher attitude.

Table 8. Student Perception of Teacher Attitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>98.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 8, of the 98 respondents 96 or 98.0% indicated that they perceived the teacher as having a positive attitude toward them by responding yes to questions related to the students' perception of teacher attitude and only 2 or 2.0% of the students responded no to questions related to the students' perception of teacher attitude toward them. The majority of the students perceived the teacher as having a positive attitude toward them.

Table 9 is a frequency distribution of the computed variable student perception of parental support. The three selected questions parent 18, parent 19, and parent 20 were
computed in order to get the new computed variable for student perception of parental support.

Table 9. Student Perception of Parental Support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 9, of the 98 respondents 98 or 100.0% indicated that they perceived their parent to be supportive of their academic achievement by responding yes to questions related to the students' perception of parental support and none of the students responded no to questions related to the students' perception of parental support. Overwhelmingly, the students perceived their parent to be supportive of their academic achievement.

Table 10 is a frequency distribution of the computed variable student perception of self-concept. Three selected questions student 24, student 25, and student 26 were computed and to get the new computed variable for student perception of self-concept.

As shown in Table 10, of the 98 respondents 97 or 99.0% indicated that they had a positive perception of self by responding yes to questions related to the students' perception of self-concept and only 1 or 1.0% of the students responded no to questions related to the students' perception of self-concept which would indicate a negative perception of self. The majority of the students perceived their self-concept as positive.
The research questions and hypotheses in the study are as follows:

**Research Question 1:** Is there a relationship between students' perception of teacher attitude and academic achievement?

**Hypotheses 1:** There is no statistically significant relationship between students' perception of teacher attitude and the students' academic achievement.

**Research Question 2:** Is there a relationship between students' perception of parental support and academic achievement?

**Hypotheses 2:** There is no statistically significant relationship between students' perception of parental support and the students' academic achievement.

**Research Question 3:** Is there a relationship between students' perception of self and academic achievement?

**Hypotheses 3:** There is no statistically significant relationship between students' perception of self and the students' academic achievement.
Table 11 is a cross-tabulation of the students’ perception of teacher attitude with academic achievement. It shows the association of the students’ perception of teachers’ attitude towards them as it relates to academic achievement with the students’ actual academic achievement and indicates whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.

Table 11. Actual Student Achievement and Perception of Teacher Attitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual Student Achievement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above Average</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>78.6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below Average</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>98.0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: $\Phi = -1.06; df=1; p = 1.101$

As indicated in Table 11, nineteen (19.4%) of the below average students indicated that they have a good perception of the teacher's attitude toward them by responding yes to questions and only one (1.0%) of the students indicated a negative perception of the teacher’s attitude toward him by responding no to questions. Seventy seven (78.6%) of the above average students indicated that they perceived the teacher to have a positive attitude by responding yes to questions and only one (1.0) of the students
indicated the teacher as having a negative attitude towards him by indicating no to questions.

As shown in Table 11, the statistical measurement phi (Φ) was employed to test for the strength of association between the students' perception of teacher attitude and the students' actual achievement. As indicated, a negative correlation of (Φ = -.106) was found between the two variables. When the chi square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted (p = 1.101) indicating that there was no statistically significant relationship between the two variables at the .05 level of probability.

Table 12 is a cross-tabulation of the students' perception of parental support with academic achievement. It shows the association of the students' perception of his parents support of him as it relates to his academic achievement with the students actual academic achievement being below or above average and indicates whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.

As indicated in Table 12, twenty (20.4%) of the below average students indicated that they perceived their parent to be supportive of academic achievement and seventy eight (79.6%) of the above average students indicated that they perceived their parent to be supportive of their academic achievement. None of the below or above average students indicated no the questions related to parental support indicating no parental support.

As shown in Table 12, no statistics are computed because Parent is a constant.
Table 12. Actual Student Achievement and Perception of Parental Support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actual Student Achievement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above Average</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>79.6</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>79.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below Average</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $\Phi = 0$; $df = 0$; $p = 0$.

Table 13 is a cross-tabulation of the students' perception of self-concept with academic achievement. It shows the association of the students' perception of his self-concept as it relates to academic achievement with the students' actual academic achievement and indicates whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.

As indicated in Table 13, twenty percent (20%) of the below average students indicated that they have a good perception of self by responding yes to questions and none of the students indicated that they have a negative perception of self by responding no to questions. Seventy seven (77%) of the above average students indicated that they had a good perception of self by responding yes to questions and only one (1%) responded no to questions.

As shown in Table 13, the statistical measurement phi ($\Phi$) was employed to test for the strength of association between the students' perception of teacher attitude and the
students' actual achievement. As indicated, there was no relationship ($\Phi = .051$) between the two variables. When the chi square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted ($p = .259$) indicating that there was no statistically significant relationship between the two variables at the .05 level of probability.

Table 13. Actual Student Achievement and Perception of Self-Concept

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual Student Achievement</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above Average</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below Average</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>99.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: $\Phi = .051; df = 1; p = .259$*
CHAPTER V
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This research study was designed to answer three questions concerning low-income fourth-grade students' perception of academic achievement in relationship to teacher attitude, parental support and self-concept. The students were from two school districts, the Atlanta Public School and the Clayton County Public Schools.

The conclusions and recommendations of the research findings are presented in this chapter. Recommendations are proposed for future discussions for policy makers, social workers, practitioners and administrators. Each research question is presented in order to summarize the significant findings of interest.

Conclusions

Research Question 1: Is there a relationship between students' perception of teacher attitude and academic achievement?

In order to determine if there was a relationship between students perception of teacher attitude and academic achievement three of the questions teacher 12, teacher 13, and teacher 14 were computed and divided by three to equal one table to get a new variable for teacher. The students’ actual academic achievement scale of poor, fair, good
and excellent was divided into two variables above average achievement and below average achievement.

Perception of teacher attitude was cross tabulated with below and above average academic achievement variables. 19.4% of the respondents with below average academic achievement indicated that they had a good perception of teacher attitude by indicating yes to questions and 78.6% of the respondents with above average academic achievement indicated they had a good perception of teacher attitude by indicating yes to questions.

The statistical measurement phi (Φ) was employed to test the strength of association between students' perception of teacher attitude and actual academic achievement. As indicated, there was a weak relationship (Φ = -.106) between the two variables. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted (p = .101) indicating that there was not a statically significant relationship between the two variables at the .05 level of probability (See Table 11).

In sum, the majority of the students surveyed responded by indicating that they perceived the teacher as having a positive attitude towards them and their academic achievement. Positive reinforcement had an effect on the student's perception of his or her academic potential. The majority of the students were motivated to strive for academic success and had above average achievement based on their positive perception of the teacher's attitude towards.

Research Question 2: Is there a relationship between students' perception of parental support and academic achievement?
In order to determine if there was a relationship between students' perception of parental support and academic achievement three of the questions parent 18, parent 19, and parent 20 were computed and divided by three to equal one table to get a new variable for parent. The students' actual academic achievement scale of poor, fair, good and excellent was divided into two variables above average achievement and below average achievement.

Perception of parental support was cross tabulated with below and above average academic achievement variables. 20.4% of the respondents with below average academic achievement indicated that they had a good perception of parental support by indicating yes to questions and 79.6% of the respondents with above average academic achievement indicated they had a good perception of parental support by indicating yes to questions. None of the respondents indicated a negative perception of parental support.

No statistics were computed because Parent is a constant. In sum, all of the respondents indicated that they perceived their parent to be supportive of their academic achievement and they all had above average academic achievement. The perception the student held regarding the support and involvement of his or her parent positively impacted academic achievement and influenced chance for continued success for low income students (See Table 12).

Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between students' perception of self and academic achievement?

In order to determine if there was a relationship between students' perception of self-concept and academic achievement three of the questions student 24, student 25, and
student 26 were computed and divided by three to equal one table to get a new variable for student. The students' actual academic achievement scale of poor, fair, good and excellent was divided into two variables above average achievement and below average achievement.

Perception of self-concept was cross tabulated with below and above average academic achievement variables, 20.4% of the respondents with below average academic achievement indicated that they had a good perception of self-concept by indicating yes to questions and 78.6% of the respondents with above average academic achievement indicated the they had a good perception of self by indicating yes to questions. None of the respondents with below average academic achievement responded no to questions and only 1% of the above average academic achievement responded no to questions indicating a negative perception of self-concept.

The statistical measurement phi (Φ) was employed to test the strength of association between students' perception of self-concept and actual academic achievement. As indicated, there was a weak relationship (Φ = .051) between the two variables. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted (p = .259) indicating that there was not a statistically significant relationship between the two variables at the .05 level of probability (See Table 13).

In sum, the majority of the students indicated a positive perception of self-concept. The students' perception of his or her own abilities influenced his or her academic potential. High academic achievement was reported by these students and a positive self-concept was identified as a determinant of educational achievement. Based
on the findings of this study, it can be said with some degree of certainty that the students’ perception of self-concept, teachers’ attitude, parental support, and academic achievement are inter-related.

Contrary to the statistics that have been posited in the literature for children placed at risk of educational failure, this researcher found little evidence of low academic achievement for students labeled poor and minority. In this study the results suggest that there are important relationships between parental beliefs, behaviors and the quality of success producing patterns for students’ academic achievement. The patterns for high achievers were as follows: the parent/guardian was a high school graduate or had attended college, the parent/guardian was employed full or part time, the parent/guardian median age was 30-39, there was frequent school contact initiated by the parent/guardian, parent/guardian had achievement centered rules and norms, parent/guardian established clear role boundaries and the students had some stimulating and supportive teachers.

Income does not always describe the attitudes and expectations of African-American parents. The key to resiliency among African-American youth lie in the ability of the parents/guardian to combine their high expectations for their children’s academic success with actions that will promote that success. Successful academic achievement is the function of good parenting skills, and positive parenting involvement in the student’s educational process. It is not difficult to understand how these conditions may influence the African-American child’s perception to the extent of positively influencing the pursuit of academic achievement.
Recommendations

Although for decades research has addressed academic achievement in African Americans, neither the reasons underlying failure in large numbers of youth nor the resiliency of many youth in the face of great disadvantage are well-understood. The focus of the current study is fourth-grade low income children who are economically disadvantaged. The researcher examined whether children’s perceptions of their teachers attitude, parental support and their own self-concept were related to their academic achievement.

As a result of the findings of the study, the researcher is recommending the following:

1. More research is needed to measure academic achievement and the well being of low income African-American students who are at risk of educational failure.

2. More research is needed to further define achievement differences within and across racial ethnic groups.

3. Social Workers must create their own models of practice that address the needs of low-income and other at risk children, and integrate these models into day-to-day practice interventions.

4. Teachers, administrators and policy/decision makers must become sensitive to the needs and learning styles of low-income children and begin to implement programs of study to enhance and support academic learning among these groups.
5. Existing social policies must be revisited, modified, and implemented to bridge the gaps between social services, community interventions, and schools.

6. School Social Workers must work diligently to create linkages between parents and schools designed to empower children and their families.
APPENDICES
APPENDIX A: LETTER TO PARENT/GUARDIAN

September 10, 2006

Dear Parent/Guardian:

I am a student in the PhD Program in Social Work at Clark Atlanta University. I am researching and writing about the perception fourth graders have about school. I would like to invite you and your child to participate in my dissertation research study.

The information will be used to help me complete my degree at Clark Atlanta University. The questionnaire will take about ten minutes to complete. The questionnaire requires parental permission. I would appreciate your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Valecia Warren
APPENDIX B: PARENTAL PERMISSION FORM

Your son/daughter ____________________________ has been chosen to participate in a dissertation research study. This study will look a fourth grad student’s perception of academic achievement, teacher attitude and parent support. The study will require parent permission, the student’s report card for the 2007-2007 academic year and completion of a student questionnaire. All laws of confidentiality in accordance with Federal and State regulations will be observed.

I hereby give permission for my son/daughter ____________________________  

to participate in the research study.

Parent Signature ________________________________________________

Date __________________________________________________________
APPENDIX C: STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Low income African-American Fourth-Grade Student Perceptions of Academic Achievement in Relationship to Student Self-Concept, Parental Support and Teacher Attitudes

Section I: Parent/Guardian Background

Place a mark (X) next to the appropriate item. Choose only one answer for each question

1. Parent/Guardian Gender: 
   1) ___ Female  
   2) ___ Male

2. Parent/Guardian Age Group:
   1) ___ Under 30  
   2) ___ 30-39
   3) ___ 40-49
   4) ___ Over 50

3. Parent/Guardian Relationship:
   1) ___ Parent  
   2) ___ Grandparent
   3) ___ Other

4. Parent/Guardian Education:
   1) ___ Less than High School
   2) ___ High School
   3) ___ Other

5. Parent/Guardian Race:
   1) ___ Africans American
   2) ___ White
   3) ___ Hispanic
   4) ___ Other

6. Parent/Guardian on Public Assistance:
   1) ___ Current
   2) ___ Former
   3) ___ Never on Assistance
7. Parent/Guardian Marital Status
   1) Married  2) Never Married  
   3) Divorced  4) Separated  
   5) Widowed

8. Parent/Guardian Employment:
   1) Full Time  2) Part Time  
   3) Unemployed

Section II: Student Background Information

Place a mark (X) next to the appropriate item. Choose only one answer for each question.

9. Gender of Student:  1) Female  2) Male

10. Age of Student:
    1) Eight  2) Nine  3) Ten  
    4) Eleven

11. Race of Student:
    1) African American  2) White  
    3) Hispanic  4) Other

Section III: Student Perceptions

Please respond Yes or no to the following statements.

Write appropriate number in the blank beside each statement.

1 = YES  2 = NO

A. Student Perceptions of Teacher Attitude

   ___12. My teacher smiles at me when I get good grades in school.
   ___13. My teacher says nice things to me when I do well with my school work.
   ___14. I understand my school work when my teacher explains it to me.
   ___15. My teacher assists me with my school work.
16. My teacher is nice to me.

17. My teacher says I'm smart.

B. Student Perception of Parental Support

18. My parent smiles at me when I get good grades in school.

19. My parent says nice things to me when I do well in school.

20. I understand my school work when my parent explains it to me.

21. My parent assists me with my school work.

22. My parent is nice to me.

23. My parent says I'm smart.

C. Student Perceptions of Academic Achievement

24. I smile when I get good grades in school.

25. I say nice things about myself when I do well in school.

26. I understand how to do my school work.

27. I like it when people are nice to me.

28. I say I'm smart.

Section IV: Student Actual Achievement – Fourth-Grade Report Card

Determine a number as follows: A = 4, B = 3, C = 2, D and below = 1

29. Language Arts: 1) ___Poor 2) ___Fair 3) ___Good 4) ___Excellent

30. Mathematics: 1) ___Poor 2) ___Fair 3) ___Good 4) ___Excellent

31. Reading: 1) ___Poor 2) ___Fair 3) ___Good 4) ___Excellent

32. Science: 1) ___Poor 2) ___Fair 3) ___Good 4) ___Excellent

33. Social Studies: 1) ___Poor 2) ___Fair 3) ___Good 4) ___Excellent
34. Health: 1) Poor 2) Fair 3) Good 4) Excellent
35. Physical Education: 1) Poor 2) Fair 3) Good 4) Excellent
36. Music: 1) Poor 2) Fair 3) Good 4) Excellent
37. Art: 1) Poor 2) Fair 3) Good 4) Excellent
38. Attendance: 1) Poor 2) Fair 3) Good 4) Excellent
39. Conduct: 1) Poor 2) Fair 3) Good 4) Excellent
APPENDIX D: SPSS PROGRAM ANALYSIS

TITLE 'PERCEPTIONS OF AFRICAN-AMERICAN FOURTH GRADERS.'
SUBTITLE 'Valecia Warren - CAU School of Social Work - PhD Program.'

DATA LIST FIXED/
  ID 1-3
  PARGEND 4
  PARAGE 5
  PAREDC 6
  PARRELA 7
  PARETHIC 8
  PARPUBL 9
  PARMARIT 10
  PAREMPLY 11
  STUDGEND 12
  STUDAGE 13
  STUDETHI 14
  TEACH12 15
  TEACH13 16
  TEACH14 17
  TEACH15 18
  TEACH16 19
  PARENT18 21
  PARENT19 22
  PARENT20 23
  PARENT21 24
  PARENT22 25
  PARENT23 26
  STUD24 27
  STUD25 28
  STUD26 29
  STUD27 30
  STUD28 31
  ACTUAL 32.

  COMPUTE TEACHER = (TEACH12+TEACH13+TEACH14)/3.
  COMPUTE PARENT = (PARENT18+PARENT19+PARENT20)/3.
  COMPUTE STUDENT = (STUD24+STUD25+STUD26)/3.

VARIABLE LABELS
  ID 'Case Number'
  PARGEND 'Q1 Parent-Guardian Gender'

105
PARAGE 'Q2 Parent-Guardian Age Group'
PAREDUC 'Q3 Parent-Guardian Education'
PARRELA 'Q4 Parent-Guardian Relationship'
PARETHIC 'Q5 Parent-Guardian Race'
PARPUBLI 'Q6 Parent-Guardian Public Assistance'
PARMARIT 'Q7 Parent-Guardian Marital Status'
PAREMPLY 'Q8 Parent-Guardian Employment'
STUDEND 'Q9 Gender of Student'
STUDAGE 'Q10 Age of Student'
STUDETHI 'Q11 Race of Student'
TEACH12 'Q12 My teacher smiles at me when I get good grades in School'
TEACH13 'Q13 My teacher says nice things to me when I do well in school work'
TEACH14 'Q14 I understand my school work when my teacher explains it to me'
TEACH15 'Q15 My teacher assists me with my school work'
TEACH16 'Q16 My teacher is nice to me'
TEACH17 'Q17 My teacher says I am smart'
PARENT18 'Q18 My parent smiles at me when I get good grades in school'
PARENT19 'Q19 My parent says nice things to me when I do well in school'
PARENT20 'Q20 I understand my school work when my parent explains it to me'
PARENT21 'Q21 My parents assist me with my school work'
PARENT22 'Q22 My parent is nice to me'
PARENT23 'Q23 My parent says I am smart'
STUD24 'Q24 I smile when I get good grades in school'
STUD25 'Q25 I say nice thing about myself when I do well in school'
STUD26 'Q26 I understand how to do my school work'
STUD27 'Q27 I like it when people are nice to me'
STUD28 'Q28 I say I am smart'
ACTUAL 'Q29 Actual Student Achievement.'

VALUE LABELS
PARGEND
1 'Female'
2 'Male'/
PARAGE
1 'Under 30'
2 '30-39'
3 '40-49'
4 '50 up'/
PAREDUC
1 'Less-HighSchool'
2 'HighSchool Grad'
3 'College'/
PARRELA
1 'Parent'
2 'GrandParent'
3 'Other'/
PARETHIC
1 'AfriAmerican'
2 'White'
1 'Yes'
PARENT21
  1 'Yes'
  2 'No'/
PARENT22
  1 'Yes'
  2 'No'/
PARENT23
  1 'Yes'
  2 'No'/
STUD24
  1 'Yes'
  2 'No'/
STUD25
  1 'Yes'
  2 'No'/
STUD26
  1 'Yes'
  2 'No'/
STUD27
  2 'No'/
  1 'Yes'
  2 'No'/
STUD28
  1 'Yes'
  2 'No'/
ACTUAL
  1 'Below Average'
  2 '1-5'
  3 '2-0'
  4 '2-5'
  5 'Above Average'
  6 '3-5'
  7 '4-0'/.

RECODE TEACHER PARENT STUDENT (1 THRU 1.99=1)(2 THRU 2.99=2).

RECODE ACTUAL (1 THRU 4.99=1)(5 THRU 7.99=5).

MISSING VALUES
  PARGEND PARAGE PAREDUC PARRELA PARETHIC PARPUBLI PARMARIT PAREMPLY
  STUDGEND STUDAGE STUDETHI TEACH12 TEACH13 TEACH14 TEACH15 TEACH16
  TEACH17
  PARENT18 PARENT19 PARENT20 PARENT21 PARENT22 PARENT23
  STUD24 STUD25 STUD26 STUD27 STUD28 ACTUAL (0).

BEGIN DATA
  00112311321221111111111111111111
  00211241111224111111111111112116
  00312311311112122111111111121114
  004123112223111112111111121115
  005132113211112111111121122115
  006123112222111111111111111116
  007111111111111111111111111116
END DATA.

FREQUENCIES
/VARIABLES PARGEND PARAGE PAREDUC PARRELCA PARETHIC PARPUBLI PARMARIT PAREMPL
STUDGEND STUDAGE STUDETHI TEACH12 TEACH13 TEACH14 TEACH15 TEACH16 TEACH17
PARENT18 PARENT19 PARENT20 PARENT21 PARENT22 PARENT23
STUD24 STUD25 STUD26 STUD27 STUD28 ACTUAL TEACHER PARENT STUDENT
/STATISTICS = .
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